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Editor
E. ANNAMALAI



CENTRAL INSTITUTE OF INDIAN LANGUAGES

Ministry of Education, Govt. of India
Manasagangotri, Mysore 570 006

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EDITORIAL

The academic interest in minorities has increased since the second world war which resulted in re-drawing of political boundaries and transfer of populations, bringing in the problems of minorities to the attention of the world. The United Nations, taking interest in minorities rights, has defined the minorities thus :

- (a) The term minority includes only those non-dominant groups in a population which possess and wish to preserve stable ethnic, religious or linguistic traditions or characteristics markedly different from those of the rest of the population.
- (b) Such minorities should properly include a number of persons sufficient by themselves to develop such characteristics; and
- (c) the members of such minorities must be loyal to the State of which they are nationals.

There are many organizations and charters to protect the interests of minorities which are found in almost all countries. The common problems of minorities have even earned a special name as problems of the fourth world.

The Central Institute of Indian Languages has been working with the problems of linguistic minorities in India. There are basically two kinds of linguistic minorities in India. In one kind, the language of the minority community in one State will be the language of the majority community in another State or States. An example is the Tamil speaking community in Karnataka. In the other kind, the minority community remains minority everywhere and it may be restricted to one State or spread over more than one State. The examples are communities speaking tribal languages like Sora, and Santali as well as non-tribal languages like Tulu and Konkani. The problems of these two kinds of minorities are different.

The Institute has worked on both these two kinds of minorities. The work relating to the first kind is largely sociolinguistic dealing with patterns of language use in different domains, phenomenon of language shift and maintenance, attitude towards minority and majority languages and linguistic convergence of the minority language. The work with the second kind relates to the codification of the language, its use in the education and inter-ethnic communication.

There is a cultural need in the minority language speakers of maintaining their language and have pride about it and there is cultural and economic needs to learn the majority language. A strategy has to be evolved to achieve this dual objective and the education plays a crucial role in this strategy. The work of the Institute is thus ultimately related to the education of linguistic minorities. Besides research and material production, the Institute has also undertaken some training programmes for the teachers, students from linguistic minority communities.

This issue of *Vartavaha* contains reports of two of our studies on linguistic minorities. One is a general sociolinguistic appraisal giving factual information about speakers for linguistic minorities provided in the Indian Constitution, demographic distribution of minority language education, administration and mass communication. The other report is on a special minority community, viz., Jewish in Cochin which does not maintain ancient language. This report is interesting from the point of view of time depth of the minority community, which, though has lost its language, still retains some religious characteristics to identify itself.

The mandate of the Institute is the development of Indian languages and this mandate is carried out by helping the use of Indian languages in education, administration and mass communication. The work, however, is relatively more in the domain of education. To improve the teaching of Indian languages in schools, the Institute's materials and training programmes emphasize the development of language skills. The studies of the Institute point out that the reading skills are not properly developed among the school children. The teachers themselves are not aware of the techniques of teaching reading and the importance of different reading skills. This is a very regrettable situation when reading in modern age is so important for acquisition of knowledge. The Institute has conducted many research projects and training programmes in reading. This issue contains one such study comparing silent and oral reading.

Vartavaha as the occasional bulletin of the Institute gives news about the academic activities of the Institute and from this point of view reports of the various seminars and conferences conducted by the Institute are given in this issue. As a vehicle for information on various happenings to Indian languages regarding their use and development, this issue carries information which appears in the mass media. It is hoped that this information will be useful to the language planners and students of Indian languages.

E. ANNAMALAI

**LANGUAGE MAINTENANCE AND LANGUAGE SHIFT :
A CASE STUDY OF LANGUAGE USE AMONG THE JEWS
IN COCHIN (KERALA STATE)**

SAM MOHAN LAL

1. INTRODUCTION

1. 1. Area and the population under study

Jews came to Kerala soon after the destruction of their second temple in 72 A. D. and settled in Cochin. They now live in two different places in Cochin. At Mattanchery in Cochin there is a separate area called 'Jew Town' where most of the Jews live. There are some more Jewish families in Parur which is roughly 45 km. away from Cochin and it is a sub-urban area. At present in both the places there are about 70 to 80 families. Before the State of Israel was established, there were more Jews in Cochin, some of them have migrated to Israel since then.

1. 2. History of the Jews in Kerala

"The history of the Jews in Kerala has marked an interesting episode in the history of Jewish people. How and when they came to South-West Coast of India are some of the unsettled problems of their history. Whatever be the date of the first settlement, it is an undisputed fact of history that from the 5th to the 16th century, the Jews in Kerala had an independent principality ruled over by a prince of their own race. Tradition has it, that ten thousand Jews came to Kerala soon after the destruction of their second temple in 72 A. D. The Jews are then the first foreigners who migrated to India and made her their second house"¹

During the early periods, Jews were well treated by the successive rulers of Cochin. After the arrival of Portuguese to Cochin in the year 1500, the Jews faced lot of problems. The Portuguese damaged the Jew Town at Cochin and partially destroyed the famous 'Paradesi Synagogue' in 1661. The scattered Jews joined together during the period of Dutch who overthrew Portuguese in the year 1663. In 1795, Cochin came under the control of the British and after this period the Jews had a peaceful life.

1. 3. Maintenance of Hebrew in the past

The Jews of Cochin came from different parts of the world such as Portugal, Spain, etc., and spoke the respective languages of the area. They adopted Malayalam, the native language of the area for their daily interaction with the local people and they

¹ *Census of India, 1961, Volume VII Kerala p. 35 by S. S. Koder, Fort Cochin.*

maintained Hebrew for religious purpose. Hebrew printing was in existence. 'Prayers in Hebrew were composed in original and original hymns have been written and published both in manuscript form and as printed books (1757/1769 C. E.)' ¹.

During the British period in 1835, the missionaries from Britain established a school for teaching English and Hebrew. It is said that in earlier days the Madras University taught the Hebrew language as an optional subject and the Jewish students went to Madras to take their examinations in Hebrew. A Hebrew-Malayalam press was started in 1877 by Jacob David Cohen mainly for spreading Judaism among the women. It is evident that during the British period encouragement was given for the spread of Hebrew literature by translating it into English and Malayalam. Even now translation in English or Malayalam is found in the religious books along with the Hebrew version. But in the scroll made of tanned sheep skin found in the synagogues, the scripture is written only in Hebrew without any translation.

1. 4. The present study

A study in the year 1977 was undertaken to find out the pattern of language use among the present day Jews. It was thought that it would be an interesting study because of the time depth of migration. The data were collected by administering a questionnaire.

The questionnaire was administered to a total of 40 Jews. Among them 25 people (62.5%) live in Cochin (Mattancherry) which is an urban area and the rest (37.5%) live in Parur, a sub-urban area. Among the latter, 65% had their ancestors who lived in the urban area.

2. Analytical plan and format

The population was divided into four age groups, viz., 10-29 (20%); 30-31 (12.5%); 40-49 (20%) and 50- above (47.5%). There are two sects of Jews: black Jews (40%) and white Jews (60%). Education level was divided into four, namely, below matric (12.5%); matric (25%); graduates (45%) and post-graduates (17.5%).

The variables identified were two, viz., age and education. Questions were asked about the language used in formal contexts such as family domain, shopping centre and neighbourhood.

¹ Information gathered from the mimeographed unpublished material. Source: S. S. Koder, Fort Cochin.

3. Languages known by the community

All the respondents have stated that their mother tongue is Malayalam. The languages known to them other than Malayalam and English are Hebrew, Hindi, Tamil and Persian. 90% of the respondents have stated that they studied English in the school and 90% of the persons interviewed studied Hebrew privately at home. The rest (10%) learnt Hebrew in the school. Hindi was learnt in the school by 12.5% of the respondents.

4. Medium of instruction and second language

At the elementary school level (Std I to V) 25% of the respondents had English as the medium of instruction and Malayalam as the second language; 70% had Malayalam medium and English was the second language.

In the middle school, (Std VI to VII) 25% of them had English as the medium of instruction and Malayalam as the second language. 57.5% of the respondents have stated that for them Malayalam was the medium of instruction and English was the second language.

At the high school level (IX to XI) it has been understood that 27.5% of the respondents had English as the medium and Malayalam as the second language. And for 50% of the respondents Malayalam was the medium of instruction and English was the second language. 7.5% of the respondents have stated that for them English was the medium of instruction and Hebrew was the second language. All these respondents who had Hebrew as the second language were above 50 years of age.

At the post-graduate level 5% of the respondents had English as the medium of instruction and Malayalam as the second language. Another 5% have stated that English was the medium of instruction without any second language.

5. Reading habit

As far as the reading habits of Jews are concerned nobody has reported that they will read books or other writings in Hebrew other than using for religious purpose.

It is observed that 80% of the Jews interviewed have stated that they read dailies, magazines, journals, literary writing, technical or business writings both in English and in Malayalam; 12.5% of the informants stated that they prefer to read the above mentioned writings only in Malayalam and the rest (7.5%) who have their educational qualification matric and above prefer to read only in English.

It has been stated by the 57.5% of the respondents that they prefer to read novels, cinema news, sports news, books on science and literature both in English and in

Malayalam whereas 25% of the respondents whose education is below matric prefer to read those books only in Malayalam and 17.5% who are above matric prefer to read those only in English.

When asked about the order of preference to the language while reading novels, magazines, dailies and books on science, literature etc., it has been found out that 57.5% of the Jews with mixed educational qualification starting from elementary to post-graduation prefer Malayalam to English. Only 5% who are post-graduates prefer English to Malayalam. 27.5% who are above matric like to read only in English while reading for relaxation.

As far as the reading habits of the Jewish community in connection with their religion is concerned, 77.5% of the respondents have stated that they read only in Hebrew, 10% read religious texts both in English and in Hebrew and 12.5% of the people are reading religious texts only in English.

Their listening habits to various programmes over radio such as drama, news, sports, sound track, music etc., 52.5% of the respondents listen to the above programmes both in English and in Malayalam and 12.5% both in English and in Hindi.

37.5% of the respondents prefer to see the films both in English and in Malayalam, 25% only in Malayalam; 25% like to see the films in English, Malayalam and in Hindi; 7.5% like to see both in Malayalam and in Hindi.

When asked about the comprehension of the conversations and the story part of it while seeing a Malayalam movie, 95% of the respondents stated that they can follow the Malayalam movie closely without any difficulty leaving the rest(5%) of the people who see only English movies or do not go to the movies at all.

6. Language used by the Jews at the various domains

6.1. Informal use

It is observed that the family conversations among 47.5% of the Jews whose education is ranging from elementary school to post-graduation will be only in Malayalam and 50% with similar educational background converse both in Malayalam and in English.

6.1.1. Interaction in the locality

Language of interaction in the neighbourhood for 70% of the Jews is Malayalam and 30% of the Jews talk in the locality both in Malayalam and in English.

6.1.2 Communication with family members

While away from home the correspondence with the family members is done only in Malayalam among the 40% of the Jewish respondents ; 27.5% of the people write only in English and 32.5% communicate with their family members both in Malayalam and in English.

6.1.3. Communication with friends

It has been observed from the present study that all the respondents (100%) have friends whose mother tongue is Malayalam. In addition to that, 12.5% have stated that they have friends whose mother tongue is English, Tamil (7.5%) and one person claimed that he has a friend whose mother tongue is Hindi.

37.5% of the Jews interviewed have stated that they use only Malayalam while communicating with their friends and 5% of them are reported to be communicating only in English and the rest (57.5%) are using both Malayalam and English while communicating with their friends.

Friends of the Jews are reported to be communicating in Malayalam with the 37.5% of the respondents ; 57.5% of the respondents have reported that their friends are communicating with them both in Malayalam and in English.

6.2 Formal language use

6.2.1. Language use in religious ceremonies

It has been observed that during the time of the ceremonies such as birth, marriage and death, religious songs are sung in Hebrew as reported by 17.5% of the respondents and the songs are sung both in Malayalam and in Hebrew as stated by 80% of the people.

15% of the respondents have reported that the languages used during the family functions and ceremonies such as birth, marriage and death are Malayalam and English ; 5% stated that the languages used are English and Hebrew ; 7.5% of the respondents stated that they use only Hebrew and 7.5% stated that they use English, Malayalam as well as Hebrew during such functions.

57.5% of the respondents stated that the languages used during the family function for birth are Malayalam and Hebrew and 7.5% stated that only Malayalam is used.

Marriage ceremony is conducted both in Malayalam and in Hebrew according to 62.5% of the respondents.

Ceremony at the time of death will be conducted both in Malayalam and in Hebrew according to the report given by 60% of the respondents and it is conducted only in Malayalam as stated by 5% of the people.

6.2.2. Communication with government officials

While communicating with the government officials 40% of the Jews prefer only Malayalam; 47.5% prefer the communication both in Malayalam and in English and only 12.5% prefer the communication in English.

7. Conclusion

7.1. Language loss

Owing to the long association with the Malayalam native speakers, usage of Hebrew was considerably lost and restricted only for religious purpose. As the number of Jews live in Cochin are considerably decreased after the formation of Israel due to migration the less number of people living now at Cochin are not able to get persons who can systematically teach Hebrew to the younger generation. As a result of that, Hebrew is taught to the children now by the parents mainly to read only, so that it can be used in the synagogue during the prayers. As a result the present generation of Jews says that they cannot understand Hebrew. It is reported that before attaining the age of 13, the children will be taught to read Hebrew and perform the religious ceremonies at the synagogue.

The teaching materials are taken from the religious texts only. None is reported to translate Malayalam materials to Hebrew for teaching their children. Also, materials in Hebrew are not brought from other places.

Moreover, they do not have any separate discussion groups dedicated to their own community to discuss about the use of Hebrew in different domains other than religion and also to get more materials written in Hebrew from Israel or from any other foreign countries. So their main intention to know Hebrew is to read the scripture during the prayer. For those who want to know the meaning of the text written in Hebrew, printed books are available with side by side translation from Hebrew to English and Malayalam in every page. Generally while coming to the synagogue, all are bringing those books with them in which the translation is available.

The study indicates that Jews are bilinguals in Malayalam and English. Both these languages are used for their day to day interaction. The language choice depends upon the person with whom they interact. It is observed that those Jews living in the semi-urban area (Parur) use little English when compared to the Jews living in Cochin. For reading and listening to different radio programmes, first preference is given to Malayalam only. English is preferred only second to Malayalam. Same situation prevails in

communicating with friends and relatives while away from the native place. Other than religion nowhere the use of Hebrew is mentioned.

7.2. Malayalam used by Jews

From the study it is found out that the Jewish community settled in Cochin though reported to have come from different parts of the world and knew Hebrew in addition to the respective languages of the country from where they came, during these long period of stay in Kerala they have totally adopted Malayalam as their mother tongue and all the respondents (100%) have stated Malayalam as their mother tongue.

Most of the respondents (95%) feel that Malayalam spoken by them is same as that of the natives and the rest (5%) have the opinion that Malayalam spoken by them is different. On verification it is understood that the Malayalam spoken by Jews have some lexical level interference from Hebrew and other languages of the country from where they originally came.

Further it is revealed from the study that the Jews at Cochin can converse in Malayalam very fluently with the native speakers as well as within their family, irrespective of their education, and occupation. As stated earlier sometimes in an informal conversation at home they use some lexical items borrowed from some foreign languages and Hebrew. According to them such foreign words used in their family conversations are slowly disappearing as time advances. This was further confirmed by the language data collected both from the elder generation and from the younger generation. The younger generation even fail to understand the meanings of most of the foreign words used by their elders.

As a whole the language use pattern among Jews is comparable to any other similar situation found in other parts of the country involving minority and dominant linguistic groups with similar type of long standing period of stay together.

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1. *Census of India 1971, General population, Kerala, Series 9-Part IIA.*
2. Koder, S. S. A monograph *The Cochin Synagogue*, 1975, Cochin.

LINGUISTIC MINORITIES OF URDU, HINDI AND KANNADA

A SOCIOLINGUISTIC APPRAISAL

D. P. PATTANAYAK
HANS R. DUA
SUGUNA REDDY

I

SAFEGUARDS FOR LINGUISTIC MINORITIES IN INDIA

Introduction

The minorities may be defined in terms of language, religion, race, ethnicity or any other criterion singly or in combination. The protection of the interest of minorities against discrimination, segregation or persecution at the hands of dominant majority groups in a country or a region is a challenging problem faced by both the developed and developing countries with different socio-cultural conditions and political organizations. The legal rights and status of minorities defined in the Constitution or any other Act of Law is one of the major source of the protection of minorities.

The question of linguistic minorities has assumed a great significance as the language problems of minorities have wider implications for linguistic, educational, socio-cultural, economic and political development. On the one hand linguistic minorities have shown a greater awareness of their social identity and cultural autonomy and even asserted their separate political identity in different parts of the world. On the other hand majority groups have demonstrated a greater degree of concern, and have evolved language or educational policies either for the assimilation of minorities or for their integration with the majority group, while preserving their language, religion and culture in the processes of change and modernization. Thus, the language problems of linguistic minorities and minority-majority relationships have assumed great importance from the point of view of language use, change and development on the one hand and social change, mobilization and communication on the other.

Constitutional safeguards

The constitutional safeguards provided in the Indian Constitution for protecting the interests of linguistic minorities are significant for three reasons. First, they recognize the inherent multilingual character of India in general and various States and Union Territories in particular. This was evident from the report of the State Reorganization Commission (1956 : 205) at the time of formation of States on linguistic basis.

To quote

1. Not all the language groups are so placed that they can be ground into separate states.

2. There are a large number of bilingual belts between different linguistic zones and
3. There exist areas with a mixed population within unilingual areas.

The inherent multilingual character of States and Union Territories has been further reinforced by free inter-state migration due to industrialization, urbanization or other factors. Thus, the constitutional safeguards provided to the linguistic minorities fulfil the demands of realities of multilingual situations.

Second, the constitutional provisions reflect the democratic structure of Indian nation. In this respect it would be interesting to consider the situation in both India and America. In the States the Constitution does not guarantee language rights nor a right to education. Even the Bilingual Education Act of 1968 does not create any language rights nor bilingual school rights.

However, language related issues concerning linguistic minority have been the focus of concern in the United States when they are related to discrimination in fundamental rights such as right to vote. On the other hand, the provisions in the Indian Constitution confer rights to minorities to preserve their language, culture and religion and establish their own institutions. But as would be seen from the demand for Punjabi in Punjab or the Gokak Report agitation in Karnataka, there is much less concern for minority rights at the regional level.

Finally, the constitutional provisions recognize the dynamics of interaction between the majority and minority groups characteristic of the multilingual situation. They do not merely accord certain rights to linguistic minorities, but also enjoin upon the government to fulfil certain obligations in the interests of the minorities. Thus, the safeguards provided to linguistic minorities are firmly established on the basis of certain rights on the part of minorities and responsibilities on the part of the government.

The relevant Articles regarding the constitutional safeguards provided to linguistic minorities highlight five crucial issues about language use in education and administration by the minorities. The first issue relates to language rights in particular. Thus, according to Article 29 (1) any group "having a distinct language, script or culture of its own shall have the right to conserve the same". This right cannot be effectively realized unless the minority groups have freedom to establish and administer educational institutions of their own choice. The importance of educational institutions for fulfilling language rights has been recognized in Article 30 (1) according to which "all minorities, whether based on religion or language, shall have the right to establish and administer educational institutions of their own choice". Thus, these two articles provide fundamental rights to linguistic minorities which is necessary for freedom of action and display of initiative on their part to preserve their language and culture.

The second issue is related to the question of discrimination which has been tackled in two ways. In the first place equality of opportunity is emphasized to prevent discrimination on the basis of caste, religion, or language. Thus, according to Article 29 (2) "no citizen shall be denied admission into any educational institution maintained by the State or receiving aid out of State funds on grounds only of religion, race, caste language or any of them". This implies that the institutions run by minorities are also open to the members of other communities. However, the character of the minorities institutions does not change when students from other communities are admitted into such institutions. Furthermore, it has been interpreted by the words "of their choice" that the minority educational institutions need not necessarily be engaged in the conservation of minority language, script or culture. They can maintain minority character even if they impart general education.

In the second place Article 30 (2) protects minority institutions against discrimination in granting aid to them. The State cannot withhold any aid to them under the plea that they are under the management of minority. Furthermore, the State cannot impose medium of instruction or interfere in the management of minority institution in granting aid since both Articles 29 (1) and 30 (1) protect the minorities against any interference by the State in matters of medium of instruction and modes of management.

The third issue concerns the use of minority languages for official purposes and this has been handled in Articles 347 and 350. According to Article 350 every person has the right to "submit a representation for the redress of any grievance to any officer or authority of the Union or a State in any of the languages used in the Union or in the State, as the case may be". While Article 350 accords right to individuals to use any language for official purposes, the Article 347 makes provision for the official recognition of any language for any purpose as the President may specify if he is satisfied that a substantial proportion of the population of a State desire the use of any language spoken by them. Thus in Andhra Pradesh Telugu and Urdu and in Bihar Hindi and Urdu are recognized as official languages in the State. The practical suggestions for implementation made in this regard also need to be mentioned here. Thus, if a linguistic minority constitutes 15-20 per cent of population in a district and below, like Municipality, Tehsil, etc., then important government notices, rules and other publications are to be published in minority languages also. If 60% of the population in a district use a language other than the official one, that language may be recognized as additional official language for the district.

Fourth, the protection of linguistic minorities is not left to them alone as they may not be able to take initiative or mobilise resources to establish and administer the institutions of their own choice. Therefore, Article 350-A enjoins upon the government "to provide" adequate facilities for instructions in the mother tongue at the primary stage of education to children belonging to linguistic minority groups". In this respect "the President may

issue such directions to any State as he considers necessary or proper for securing the provisions of such facilities”.

The final issue in the constitutional provisions for linguistic minorities concerns the question of implementation and resolution of practical problems involved in implementation. This has been taken care of by Article 350 B according to which a special officer for linguistic minorities shall be appointed by the President who shall investigate all matters relating to the safeguards provided for linguistic minorities in the Constitution. Under this provision a commissioner of linguistic minorities is appointed who reports to the President. The reports are laid before each House of Parliament and sent to the governments of the states concerned for necessary action. The several reports that have been presented so far provide all the necessary information regarding the implementation of safeguards, the problems involved in implementation, the machinery evolved to resolve the problems and the progress achieved in this respect. They also throw light on the initiative and involvement of the linguistic minorities in resolving their problems.

Sociolinguistic Context of Linguistic Minorities

The linguistic minorities in India differ not only in size and strength but also in their social and economic development, their political and social mobilization, and the level of development of their language and their functional status. Both the demographic and sociolinguistic factors relevant for variation among different linguistic minorities have implications for the implementation of constitutional safeguards and the growth of institutions and resources for the use and development of minority languages. These issues have been discussed by several scholars in the context of educational problems and language planning. (Dua 1980c; Pattanayak 1977, 1979, 1980; Annamalai 1973, 1979; Daswani & Parchani 1978; Bayer 1980; Khubchandani 1978). In the present report an attempt is made to present a review of provisions of education through minority languages with respect to Kannada, Urdu and Hindi speaking minorities in different States and Union Territories.

The three groups show certain important differences. Thus, Kannada is an official language of Karnataka, Hindi is an official language of the Union as well as seven Hindi speaking States and Union Territories, and Urdu is a non-State language being spread in all parts of India in varying concentration. Though Urdu is recognized as an official language in Jammu and Kashmir, only 31 per cent of the population speaks Urdu there. In Andhra Pradesh and Bihar as pointed out earlier, Urdu is recognized as an additional official language. Thus, the three languages differ in their status and function. Hindi enjoys Central Government patronage by virtue of its special constitutional status and for the same reason it attracts opposition from some of the non-Hindi areas. Urdu is often identified with the Muslim in India and thus assumes an added dimension in sociolinguistic interactions, conflicts and compromises in the country.

It would be useful to give here a brief account of the contents of the following chapters. To begin with Chapter II provides a distribution of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada speaking minorities in different States and Union Territories of India. This is followed by their district-wise distribution in the States where there is substantial population of these minority groups. Chapter III deals with the provision of educational facilities available in the three languages in minority status in different States. It will present a comparative view of educational facilities in different States with respect to the use of language as medium of instruction or subject, the number of students and teachers and allocation of time for language teaching. Chapter IV deals with the use of Kannada, Hindi and Urdu in mass communication and for official purpose. It will focus on some of the problems involved in the implementation of constitutional safeguards.

In the concluding chapter attention will be focussed on the issues relevant for further research and study and on the linguistic problems of minorities that need to be solved to fulfil the constitutional safeguards.

II

DISTRIBUTION OF MINORITY SPEAKERS OF HINDI, URDU AND KANNADA

The numerical strength of speakers of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada shows an uneven distribution over different States and Union Territories. The difference in numerical strength of speakers varies from a few hundred to several lakhs. Due to a wide range of difference in numerical strength and concentration in different regions it is very difficult to make any generalization regarding the minority community or its attitudes towards language use in administration, mass-communication and education. Furthermore very few sociolinguistic studies of linguistic minorities are available (Bayer 1980; Daswani & Parchani 1978; Dua 1980a; Rangila 1981; Mukerji 1980).

The Table 1 gives the total speakers of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada in minority in different States and Union Territories in India and their percentage to the total speakers of each. (According to Census 1971).

A few observations can be made on the basis of the table. First, the minority speakers of all the three languages are found in all the States and Union Territories, though the number of speakers in some cases is only a few hundreds. Second, the

majority of Kannada minority speakers are found in Tamilnadu, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala in that order. Thus Kannada has a cognate relationship with Tamil, Telugu and Malayalam spoken in these States. Third, the minority speakers of Urdu are spread all over India. They are predominantly found in Andhra Pradesh and Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar and Maharashtra. These five states account for more than 80% minority population of Urdu. In the South, Urdu has a non-cognate relationship with Kannada and Telugu and in the other States it has a cognate relationship with Hindi. Thus, the language problems of Urdu speaking minority differ because of the varying size of population speaking the language as well as cognate or non-cognate relationship with languages spoken in the region.

The speakers of Hindi in minority are also spread out in all States and Union Territories. In Punjab and West Bengal Hindi speaking minority are found in large number and in these regions Hindi has a cognate relationship with Punjabi and Bengali. Next to these two regions Hindi speaking minority are found in large number in Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, Chandigarh and Karnataka in that order.

Both Andhra Pradesh and Maharashtra show an almost equal range of linguistic diversity. In Andhra Pradesh the speakers of Kannada, Urdu and Hindi are found in large number. In Maharashtra Kannada and Hindi speaking minorities are second in position and Urdu speaking minority is third in order of numerical strength. Thus, it would be interesting to compare the educational facilities available in these minority languages in the two states.

Just as the distribution of minority speakers of Kannada, Urdu and Hindi is uneven over the States and Union Territories, it is uneven over the various districts within a State. Thus, 65.9% minority speakers of Kannada in Andhra Pradesh are found in two districts of Anantpur and Kurnool; 65% of them in Maharashtra in three districts of Bombay, Sholapur and Sangli; and 64.5% of them in Tamilnadu in three districts of Coimbatore, Dharmapuri and Madurai. Thus, while more than 60% of minority population of Kannada is found in two or three districts, the rest of the speakers are spread over districts in respective States. The districtwise distribution of Kannada speakers in minority in Tamilnadu, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh is given in Table 2.

While Kannada speakers in minority in Tamilnadu, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh show a large concentration in two or three districts, this does not seem to be the case with Urdu and Hindi speaking minorities in different states. Except for a few cases where Urdu or Hindi speaking minorities are found in large number in one district, they are mostly evenly spread over different districts in different states. This is clear from Table 3 which gives the distribution of Urdu speaking minority in different districts and Table 4 which gives for Hindi speaking minority.

A few observations can be made on the basis of the distribution of the minority speakers of Kannada, Hindi and Urdu over several districts in different States. First, most of the districts are multilingual in that several minority language groups are found there. For instance, of the total state population of Kannada and Urdu Sholapur in Maharashtra has 32% of minority speakers of Kannada and 5.38% of total minority speakers of Urdu. If minority speakers of other languages are taken into account, the districts may show even more complex multilingual situation.

However, some districts will also be found predominantly monolingual. Second, some metropolitan districts like Bombay, Bangalore, Hyderabad show a great linguistic diversity than other districts. Thus, in Bombay we find 16.2% of total Kannada speaking minority, 23.6% of total Hindi speaking minority and 17.70% of total Urdu speaking minority. Thus, the districts in various states show a wide range in the numerical strength of different minority language speakers just as this is the case for the States and Union Territories when India is considered as a whole.

III

EDUCATION THROUGH KANNADA, URDU AND HINDI AS MINORITY LANGUAGES

Introduction

Before discussing the actual state of affairs regarding educational facilities through Kannada, Urdu and Hindi in minority status in different States and Union Territories it is essential to make a few general observations about the practical implementation of the constitutional safeguards. First, in different States the provision of teaching at the primary stage through the minority mother tongue is available in separate schools. Provision exists that if enough number of minority children are not available, arrangements can be made in the schools, where majority language or any other language may be the medium of instruction, to teach mother tongue as subject or its use as medium. In such a case it has been accepted from a practical point of view that there should be not less than 40 pupils in the school or 10 pupils in a class for appointing a teacher to teach through the medium of minority mother tongue. Thus, the instruction through the medium of minority mother tongue is available either in separate schools or in separate sections in the same schools meant for both minority and non-minority language groups.

Second, the educational facilities for instruction through minority language at the secondary stage may be less than what are available at the primary stage. For one thing the minority children may switch over to another medium at the secondary stage. Moreover, there may not be enough number of pupils for starting separate secondary schools for minority children. Thus, at the secondary stage of education there are likely to be more sections in the schools common for both minority and non-minority children. In this case also a minimum strength of 60 pupils in the last four classes and 15 pupils in each class is essential for providing teachers for teaching through the medium of minority language.

Third, it has been suggested that an advance register must be maintained for minority children who want to have instruction through the minority language for a period of three months ending a fortnight before the commencement of school year. This is considered essential for starting a new section or school depending upon the strength of minority pupils or for making inter-school adjustments or taking any other necessary administrative action to implement the constitutional safeguards.

Finally, whenever there is a demand to solve any problem regarding education through minority language such as opening of new schools or sections, providing teachers or textbooks, the members of minority community approach the educational authorities concerned. If their demands are not met, the matter may be reported to the Commissioner of Language Minorities who approaches the State Government concerned to resolve the problems in question. Thus, it may take a long time before the problems of linguistic minorities are solved.

Limitations of implementation and data

It is not possible to present a comprehensive account of the problems of education through minority languages for several reasons. First, the data regarding the availability of educational facilities of schools, teachers and textbooks in minority languages is available for the State as a whole, and not for districts separately. Thus, it is not possible to find out whether educational facilities through minority language are adequate in relation to the minority population in the district.

Second, the maintenance of register for advance registration of applications of minority children is not up to date. In some States advance register is not maintained at all. It is therefore not possible to find out the exact strength of minority children who want education through their mother tongue.

Third, the Commissioner of Linguistic Minorities can only bring the complaints and problems of linguistic minority to the notice of state governments concerned. However, it has no power to force government machinery to take necessary steps to meet the demands of linguistic minorities. Thus, apart from delay in this procedure some of the genuine problems of linguistic minorities may not be met at all. In any case it is difficult

to find out what problems of linguistic minorities are not met and why, and if the problems are solved, it is not possible to find out how much time is taken in solving them.

Fourth, the educational facilities available in minority language in a State do not show any steady growth or decline. Though some idea can be obtained about growth or decline of educational facilities, it is not possible to make any study of the reasons for this. However, a wide range of factors may be responsible for this including lack of action on the part of state government or initiative on the part of the minority community. The trends in patterns of growth or decline in the educational facilities in minority language present an interesting area of investigation.

Finally, apart from the practical problems in the implementation of constitutional safeguards, the use of minority languages as media of instruction along with other languages as media in the same school provide an interesting area of research from the point of view of language pedagogy, teaching through bilingual methods and interaction among different language speakers. It is time that some studies are taken on some of these issues.

Educational facilities in minority language Kannada

The limitations and the practical steps of implementation as discussed above in brief should be kept in mind in making an evaluation of the educational facilities in the three minority languages in different States and Union Territories. Table 5 provides data on schools, teachers and pupils for two academic years for the use of Kannada as minority language at the primary and secondary stages in the four States.

A few observations can be made on the basis of the table which would require some further investigation. First, there is a great disparity in the number of Kannada speaking minority children going to school at the primary level in proportion to the total Kannada speakers in the four States. There is one child for every 171 Kannada speakers in Tamilnadu, 69 in Andhra Pradesh, 25 in Maharashtra, and only 2 in Kerala according to 1972-73 figures that obtain education through Kannada medium at the primary stage. It is not possible to say whether it is due to the minority community or inadequate facilities provided by the state government. Second, the teacher pupil ratio is also the highest in Tamilnadu and the lowest in Kerala. Third, in Tamilnadu there is decline in the number of pupils in 1973-74 as compared to 1972-73 figures, whereas in the other 3 States there is increase in the number of students. In Maharashtra the number of schools has come down, while in Andhra Pradesh and Kerala there is increase in it or in the number of sections.

The comparison of educational facilities at the primary and secondary stages shows an important fact. This relates to a steep decline in the number of teachers and schools that impart instruction through the medium of minority language. This requires further

research in two important areas. First, it would be interesting to find out the language of medium to which majority of minority children switch over at the secondary stage. Also it is necessary to study whether they are competent enough in the language which they adopt as a second medium to be able to cope up with the curricular demands and compete with those who have studied through that language from the beginning.

Second, the reasons for which the minority children switch over from their mother tongue medium to another language medium need to be studied. This would provide insight into attitudes of the minority speakers towards their mother tongue; its function and status in the State and towards the language which is adopted as medium at the secondary stage.

Educational facilities in minority language Urdu

The provision of educational facilities through the medium of Urdu available in different States and the number of pupils having instruction through it are shown in Table 6.

A few facts are obvious from the table given. First, there are no separate sections for Urdu speaking minority children in the schools with other language medium in Karnataka, whereas there are large number of sections in Andhra Pradesh and Bihar. This may be because the minority speaking children are sufficient in number and separate schools are required for them. This requires some further research work from the point of view of not only physical facilities but also the pedagogical and socio-linguistic implications for teaching the minority children through their language along with other children in the same schools. Second, the data for the year 1973-74 is not available in the case of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh. In the case of the other States the number of pupils learning through Urdu medium has gone up. There is corresponding increase in the number of schools in Maharashtra, but the number of schools has come down in Andhra Pradesh. In both Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh the number of sections has decreased. It would therefore be interesting to find out whether the reasons for the decrease of section and opening of new school depend merely on the number of pupils, availability of teachers or the demand of the minority community to open new schools.

The proportion of minority children learning through the medium of Urdu in relation to the total population in respective States shows a different trend from what is found in the case of Kannada. We find that there is one child learning through Urdu medium for 36 speakers in Uttar Pradesh, 19 each in Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh, 16 in Bihar and 8 in Karnataka. Thus, it seems more Urdu speaking minority children learn through Urdu medium than Kannada speaking children learn through Kannada. However, the minority children of both the languages are in a similar position in that a large majority of them shift from their mother tongue medium to another language medium at the secondary stage.

Educational facilities in minority language Hindi

The educational facilities available in the medium of Hindi as a minority language in different States are given in table 7 showing the number of schools, sections, pupils and teachers at both primary and secondary stages of education.

A few remarks can be made on the basis of the table. First, as no data is available for Punjab, it is not possible to know the linguistic problems of Hindi speaking children in minority in Punjab. This kind of situation is also found in the case of other minorities in other States. This points out the importance of making such information available independently if the state governments do not cooperate in the matter.

Without such information it is not possible to evaluate the information for effective implementation of constitutional safeguards.

Second, the number of pupils learning through the medium of Hindi has gone up in West Bengal, Maharashtra, Assam and Gujarat, but gone down in Andhra Pradesh. The increase in Karnataka is marginal. Similarly the number of schools has gone down in Andhra Pradesh and Assam, but gone up in other States. While this is understandable, in the case of Andhra Pradesh where number of pupils has also gone down, the reason is not clear in the case of Assam.

According to the proportion of children learning through Hindi medium in relation to total Hindi speakers in respective States, the educational facilities in different States seem to be uneven. Thus, there is one child learning through Hindi medium for every 157 Hindi speakers in Karnataka, 97 speakers in Andhra Pradesh, 55 speakers in Assam, 47 speakers in West Bengal and 20 speakers in Gujarat. This shows that the educational facilities for instruction through Hindi mother tongue may not be adequate. It needs to be studied further whether the reason for this state of affairs lies with members of minority speakers of Hindi, or the state governments or other sociolinguistic reasons.

Problems of linguistic minorities

All linguistic minorities including Hindi, Urdu and Kannada face certain recurrent language and other problems pertaining to educational facilities. These problems relate to the opening of new schools or sections, upgrading of existing schools or declaration of certain schools as linguistic minority schools and availability of suitable textbooks and teachers. They may differ in scope and intensity from one minority community to another. While these problems are no less significant, it is necessary to draw attention here to some specific issues that have been brought to the notice of the Commissioner of Linguistic Minorities and that require urgent solution for sociolinguistic reasons.

The first issue concerns the recognition of linguistic minorities and the willingness of the state governments to extend facilities for education through the medium of minority language. Though the constitutional safeguards have been accepted at the national level, it was claimed by the Assam Government till 1975 that the State government had the right to recognize any language or dialect as minority for the purpose of imparting instruction at the primary stage. A similar situation prevails in the case of Hindi speakers in minority in Punjab. Since the reorganization of Punjab in 1966 the Punjab Government has claimed that it has become a unilingual State and that there are no linguistic minorities in the State, though according to Census 1971 19.9% of the total population are reported to be Hindi mother tongue speakers. In all Government schools in Punjab the medium of instruction is Punjabi, and Hindi is taught as a subject from Class IV onwards, though private schools can have Hindi medium from the very beginning. Thus, the most significant issue concerns the willingness and development of appropriate resources and implementing machinery on the part of the State governments to make provisions for education through the medium of minority languages.

Even if the government is willing, there might be other constraints because of which it may be difficult to extend the facilities in the minority language. For Intermediate Examination in Uttar Pradesh there was no provision to extend facilities for examination in minority language and despite government approach the Board was not prepared to amend its rules. Thus, the use of minority languages as medium of instruction cannot be extended beyond the primary stage under such constraints.

The second issue concerns the teaching of minority language as subject after the primary stage if the facilities are not available for its use as medium at the secondary stage. This is essential for literacy in the mother tongue and its development. This implies that minority children will have to learn four languages since they have to learn English and Hindi and one of the regional languages as well if the minority language is other than Hindi or any regional language. The learning load can be reduced to some extent if composite language courses are prepared and taught in the schools.

The teaching of minority language as a subject could be extended to non-minority groups wherever other language speakers are willing to learn. In some cases minority community may demand that its language should be taught to other children. For instance, in Uttar Pradesh it has been demanded by Urdu speaking minority that Urdu should be made the second compulsory language upto Class VIII and a fixed period should be provided in the school time table for teaching Urdu as an additional subject. It need not be emphasized that the learning of minority language by majority language speakers will contribute to a greater understanding and tolerance on the part of both the majority and minority communities.

Third, the linguistic minorities are not unaware of importance of learning the majority language for educational as well as employment purposes. It has already been

pointed out that the minority children should be competent enough when they switch over to majority or any other language medium at the secondary stage of education. However, it seems that adequate facilities for learning majority language are not available to minority children in some cases. For instance, the Anjuman-Taraqqi-Urdu, Hyderabad, has represented that qualified Telugu teachers should be provided in all the Urdu medium primary schools for teaching Telugu from Standard III onwards so that the students do not face difficulty in their studies through Telugu medium after completing their primary education. It has also been suggested that Urdu teachers should pass a test in Telugu and that they should get themselves qualified for teaching Telugu language. Similarly, the Urdu Education Society, Gulbarga in Karnataka, has demanded that Kannada language should be made compulsory for Urdu pupils at the secondary stage so that it may help them in their career. Thus, the awareness on the part of linguistic minority to be competent in the majority language for educational and socio-economic reasons is a healthy trend, and adequate facilities should be provided to meet the demands of the community. However, this should not be made a plea for introducing majority language as a medium or subject from the very beginning of primary education. The provision of transfer model of bilingual education suggested by the Central Institute of Indian Languages seems to be a suitable strategy in this respect.

Finally, the situation in Tamilnadu presents policy constraints on the linguistic minorities which are not found elsewhere, as Tamilnadu follows two-language formula instead of three-language formula. Besides the fact that the Urdu speaking minority has complained that there was no scope for learning Tamil in the Urdu medium schools, the linguistic minority pupils are deprived of the chance of learning the regional language in case they opt for learning their mother tongue at the secondary stage. Furthermore, there was no provision to learn Hindi under the two language formula for these pupils whose mother tongue was other than Hindi.

Thus, the linguistic minorities face problems in learning not only through their mother tongues due to lack of adequate facilities of schools, teachers, text books or unwillingness on the part of state governments to extend facilities, but also the majority language either due to lack of adequate facilities or due to language policy followed by the state government.

Conclusion

The discussion of linguistic problems and the available facilities of education through the media of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada at primary and secondary stage in different States brings out the following facts. As these facts have wide socio-linguistic and educational implications, there is need for further research regarding the issues raised by these facts.

- (i) As the population of minority speakers of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada differs from one district to another, it is essential to have districtwise information about the educational facilities to find out how far they are adequate for the minority population in question.
- (ii) The percentage of pupils learning through Kannada, Urdu and Hindi at the primary education varies from State to State. This requires further research as to the attitudes of minority towards mother tongue education on the one hand, and available educational facilities in the State on the other.
- (iii) The instruction through the medium of minority mother tongue is available in separate schools and in separate sections or mixed sections in the schools meant for both minority and non-minority children. A comparative study of different situations in the case of different minority languages would be extremely significant from the stand points of pedagogy, language learning and interaction among pupils of different language backgrounds.
- (iv) As the minority children have to switch over to other language medium and learn other languages such as English, Hindi or regional languages at the secondary stage of education, it needs to be explored how through composite language courses or any other strategy they can continue to study their mother tongue as subjects and source of knowledge.
- (v) Before the minority children switch over to another medium, it needs to be made sure that they are competent enough in that language to cope with the curricular demands on the one hand, and compete with other children who have learned that language from the very beginning. The effectiveness of the bilingual transfer model in this respect needs to be tested in different situations.
- (vi) Wherever it is possible, the learning of the minority languages by the majority language children should be encouraged. This will be useful for the development of minority languages and better understanding between the minority and majority groups.
- (vii) It is difficult to obtain the latest and comprehensive information about the educational problems faced by linguistic minorities. Also it appears that it takes a long time before the problems can get solved as the Commissioner of Linguistic Minorities do not have the power to take any direct action. It is therefore essential to develop a system by which up to date information about linguistic problems is readily available and the constitutional safeguards for the linguistic minorities can be effectively implemented.

IV

THE USE OF MINORITY LANGUAGES FOR OFFICIAL PURPOSES AND IN MASS-COMMUNICATION

Introduction

The implementation of constitutional safeguards for the use of minority languages for official purposes has perhaps received less attention in comparison to the educational provisions made available to the minorities. Moreover, it is not possible to get any detailed information about the problems involved in the use of a specific minority language for official purposes. However, we can raise certain general issues in considering the use of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada as minority languages in different States. These issues have implications for other linguistic minorities as well.

The use of minority languages for official purposes

As pointed out in Chapter I, it is essential to have the list of the districts, tehsils or other areas where a linguistic minority constitutes 15-20% of total population in the area. This is essential for circulation of important public notices, rules etc. in the minority language. In some States this information is not up to date as it has been pointed out in the case of Assam. Without this basic information minority languages cannot be effectively used for official purposes. How far the lack of this information has affected the use of Hindi for the minority speakers in Assam cannot be ascertained as the information about the concentration of Hindi speakers was not readily available till 1975.

In most States there is provision for translation of documents in minority language. There are State Translation Departments, Bureaus or Directorates to handle the problems of translation into minority languages. It must be pointed out that the translation facilities in Hindi, Urdu and Kannada, or other scheduled languages are better than what obtain in the case of tribal or non-scheduled languages. However, it is not possible to make any assessment as to whether these facilities are adequate and whether all relevant documents are translated into the minority languages. For instance, in Uttar Pradesh the Urdu Section functioning at the State headquarters translated 3,340 documents into Urdu during the period from July 1974 to April 1975. On the other hand in Karnataka during the same period only seven documents have been translated into Marathi and Urdu. In Kerala 22 Acts, 18 Ordinances, 9 Notifications and one set of rules have been translated into Kannada and Tamil during the same period. As the specification of translated material differs from State to State, it is possible to raise several questions regarding the translation of material into minority languages. We must know first of all the total amount of translated material in terms of uniform criteria. Secondly, it must also be considered how far the translated material is effectively used for the benefit of the minority speakers. Finally, it would be useful to explore from the point of view of the

minority community as to the type of material they would like to have in translation and how far they use the translated material that is made available. These issues assume greater importance when they are considered in the light of the discussion in the following paragraphs.

According to the constitutional safeguards where the minority community constitutes 15-20% of total population, important **government** notices, rules and other publications are to be published in minority languages. The situation in this respect does not seem to be satisfactory. For instance, the information about the publication of notices etc. has been received from the districts of Nizamabad and Nalgonda only in Andhra Pradesh. In Punjab there are no arrangements for publication of important rules, notices, etc. in minority languages in the areas where a linguistic minority constitutes 15% or more of the population. In Tamilnadu the State Government has not furnished information regarding the number of notices, rules etc. published in minority languages. A similar situation is found in Karnataka. Thus, it has been observed by the Commissioner of Linguistic Minorities that the position in respect of the publication of notices, rules and regulations etc. into minority languages does not seem to be satisfactory in general. In such a situation it may be likely that the translation facilities for translating various kinds of documents into minority languages are neither satisfactory nor useful for the minority speakers.

While every person is entitled to submit a representation for the redress of his grievances in any language, there does not seem to be any binding on the part of the authorities concerned to respond to his representation in any specific language. For instance, in Punjab replies to representations received from the public in Hindi, Punjabi and Urdu are given in English or Punjabi. In Assam there is provision to give replies to the representations by the minority in Assamese in the Brahmaputra valley districts, in Bengali in Cachar district and in English in the autonomous region unless such a region adopts any other language. In Karnataka the situation is not very clear since it is simply reported that replies to representations received from the public in minority languages are given in the same language as far as possible. Thus, it appears that there is a need for developing a uniform policy of responding to the representation by the minority community in the same language.

Finally, it is essential that the authorities who deal with the representations by the minority community should also know the language of the community. For instance, it has been pointed out that Urdu knowing staff should be provided in the offices in Uttar Pradesh so that applications in Urdu could be attended to promptly. If this was not possible, arrangements must be made for the translation of the representations of the minority into the administrative language.

Use of minority language in mass communication

The use of minority languages in radio-broadcasting and printed media is constrained due to linguistic, social, political, economic and other reasons. The problems involved in the use of minority languages in mass communication have been discussed in detail elsewhere (Dua 1980b; Pattanayak : Forthcoming). A few observations need to be made here. First, the use of Kannada, Urdu and Hindi as minority language in radio-broadcasting and printed media seems to be better in comparison to non-scheduled minority languages. However, it appears that the minority speakers of these languages do not make use of printed media to the same extent in all States. This is obvious from the Table 8 which gives the number of periodicals published in the States, the circulation of the periodicals, and the ratio of the circulation figures to the total language speakers in the State.

It is interesting to note that though the majority of Kannada speaking minorities is found in Tamilnadu, Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra and Kerala, the number of Kannada periodicals is very low in these States. As compared to the educational facilities and number of pupils learning through Kannada medium, this seems to be very inadequate. As opposed to Kannada, the number of periodicals published in Urdu is quite high in Andhra Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh, but low in Bihar and Karnataka, though the circulation of periodicals in the latter is quite high. In spite of the fact that 200 periodicals are published in Urdu in Uttar Pradesh which have a circulation of 200 thousand, the ratio of circulation of periodicals in relation to the total Urdu speakers in the State is low as compared to other States. We cannot draw any definite conclusion as the circulation may depend on literacy and other socio-economic factors. Obviously there is need for further research work in this regard.

Another fact that needs to be taken into account is that periodicals in minority languages may also have circulation among other groups. This might perhaps be the case with the high circulation of Hindi periodicals in Maharashtra. Thus, it is obvious that we need to study the patterns of use of minority language periodicals by both the minority speakers and other groups.

As regards the use of minority languages in broadcasting, we do not have any data as to how frequently the minority speakers listen to radio programmes in their mother tongues. However, data is available regarding the duration and frequency of programmes in various languages. For instance, All India Radio Station at Bombay broadcasts Urdu programmes for 30 minutes every day, Kannada programmes for 30 minutes per week, and Hindi programmes for more than 3 hours per week. The frequency of programmes also varies from station to station. Thus, All India Radio Station at Vijayawada broadcasts every week Urdu and Hindi programmes for a duration of 15 minutes each. As there are no studies regarding the listening habits of minority language speakers of Hindi, Urdu and Kannada in different States, it is very difficult to draw any conclusion about the utility, effectiveness and adequacy of programmes broadcast from various stations in different States.

Conclusion

The discussion of the constitutional safeguards provided for the linguistic minorities and the linguistic problems of Urdu, Kannada and Hindi speaking minorities predominantly found in some States have highlighted the following significant issues. These issues are important for further sociolinguistic research and for effective implementation of constitutional safeguards in the interest of linguistic minorities and intergroup relation between the minority and majority communities.

- (i) The need for a wide range of data about linguistic minorities is obvious from the point of view of functional use of minority languages, their development and the effective implementation of constitutional safeguards. The data might include the rate of literacy, age and sex-wise distribution of school going children, district-wise distribution of schools meant for minority population, and other such facts that might be necessary for language planning and development.
- (ii) The agency responsible for looking into the grievances of linguistic minorities should be able to collect the relevant information, or mobilise the required resources to resolve the problems of the minorities, and take necessary decisions and appropriate action without unnecessary delay due to administrative procedures.
- (iii) A comparative study of teaching through minority languages in separate schools and in mixed schools should be conducted under different situations from the point of view of interaction between minority and majority children, inter-group relations and teaching methods.
- (iv) As most of the minority children change from their mother tongue medium to another language medium, they should be competent enough in the language which they adopt as medium. The effectiveness of the transfer model of bilingual education needs to be studied in this respect in different settings.
- (v) The effective implementation of constitutional safeguards depends on the minority community on the one hand and the action by the state governments on the other. It would be useful to conduct some studies regarding inter-group attitudes and relationship between the minority and majority groups with respect to language, culture, social mobility, economic opportunities and other relevant criteria.

- (vi) It would be useful to study the patterns and extent of the use of minority languages for official purposes where the strength of minority speakers requires the use of their languages.
- (vii) It would be necessary to make an assessment of facilities for translation into minority languages so that necessary material can be translated and there is no gap in communication between the minority speakers and concerned authorities in dealing with the problems of the minorities.
- (viii) It would be necessary to study the patterns of use of printed and broadcasting media by the minority language speakers in their languages. This would be useful for finding out whether the use of their languages in mass communication networks adequately fulfils their linguistic, literary and cultural needs.
- (ix) As the sociolinguistic context of linguistic minorities varies from one region to another in different States, a comparative study of the same minority group in different situations is necessary to understand its language problems in general. This would provide the basis for further typological or general studies of all linguistic minorities in India.
- (x) The learning of minority languages by the majority community must be encouraged for better understanding and inter-group relations.

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TABLE 1

Distribution of Minority Speakers of Kannada, Urdu & Hindi in India

Sl. No.	States/Union Territories	Kannada speakers	% to total speakers in India	Urdu speakers	% to total speakers in India	Hindi speakers	% to total speakers in India
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1.	Andhra Pradesh	4,26,146	1.96	32,99,916	11.53	9,93,593	0.48
2.	Assam	293	Neg	6,325	0.2	7,98,409	0.38
3.	Bihar	1,298	0.01	49,93,284	17.45	*	...
4.	Gujarat	7,124	0.03	5,81,508	2.03	4,29,980	0.21
5.	Haryana	194	Neg	1,95,793	0.68	*	...
6.	Himachal Pradesh	192	Neg	10,121	0.04	*	...
7.	Jammu & Kashmir	162	Neg	12,740	0.04	6,95,375	0.33
8.	Kerala	78,933	0.36	11,374	0.04	11,586	0.01
9.	Madhya Pradesh	6,702	0.03	10,01,064	3.50	*	...
10.	Maharashtra	7,75,359	3.57	36,61,898	12.79	25,28,420	1.21
11.	Manipur	43	neg	311	neg	11,631	0.01
12.	Meghalaya	50	neg	1,410	neg	17,420	0.01
13.	Karnataka	*	...	26,36,688	9.21	5,26,692	0.25
14.	Nagaland	38	neg	252	neg	1,743	0.01
15.	Orissa	805	neg	2,86,541	1.00	3,41,474	0.16
16.	Punjab	236	neg	21,776	0.08	27,11,490	1.30
17.	Rajasthan	952	neg	6,50,947	2.27	*	...
18.	Sikkim	22	neg	213	neg	6,161	neg
19.	Tamilnadu	10,56,512	4.87	7,59,607	2.65	77,445	0.04
20.	Tripura	8	neg	67	neg	23,039	0.01
21.	Uttar Pradesh	2,186	0.01	92,73,089	32.40	*	...
22.	West Bengal	948	neg	9,50,363	3.32	27,15,384	1.30

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Andaman & Nicobar Islands	210	neg	2,488	0.01	18,499	0.01	
2. Arunachal Pradesh	348	neg	330	neg	15,354	0.01	
3. Chandigarh	142	neg	1,703	0.01	18,499	0.01	
4. Dadra & Nagar Haveli	7	neg	134	neg	1,173	neg	
5. Delhi	3,925	0.01	2,31,127	0.81	*	...	
6. Goa, Daman & Diu	16,534	0.07	19,205	0.07	11,755	0.01	
7. Lacadive, Minicoy & Arumdiva Islands	15	neg	32	neg	62	neg	
8. Pondicherry	707	neg	3,362	0.01	1.094	neg	

* The population figures not given for the States indicate the majority status of the speakers in question.

TABLE 2

**District-wise Distribution of Kannada speakers in Minority
in relation to the total District population and the total Kannada
speakers in the States of Tamilnadu, Maharashtra and Andhra Pradesh**

(Census 1971)

State	District	Total District population	Total Kannada speakers in the District	% of Kannada speakers to the total population	% Kannada speakers to the total Kannada speakers in the State
1	2	3	4	5	6
TAMILNADU	Coimbatore	43,73,178	3,45,968	7.91	32.7
	Dharmapuri	16,17,775	1,75,882	10.87	16.6
	Madurai	39,38,197	1,61,506	4.10	15.2
	Nilgiri	4,94,015	1,57,672	31.92	14.9
	Madras	24,69,449	17,703	0.72	1.6
	North Arcot	37,55,797	72,749	0.74	2.6
	Ramanathapuram	28,60,207	34,070	1.19	3.2
MAHARASHTRA	Sholapur	22,53,840	2,49,401	11.07	32.1
	Greater Bombay	59,70,575	1,25,925	2.11	16.2
	Kolhapur	20,48,049	1,05,015	5.13	13.5
	Sangli	15,39,820	1,29,804	8.43	16.7
	Osmanabad	18,96,687	53,178	2.80	6.8
	Poona	31,78,029	30,147	0.95	3.8
	Thana	22,81,664	20,845	0.91	2.6
	Safara	17,27,376	10,300	0.60	1.3
ANDHRA PRADESH	Anantpur	21,15,321	1,85,058	8.75	43.4
	Kurnool	19,82,090	96,118	4.58	22.5
	Mehbubnagar	19,32,082	27,837	1.44	6.5
	Hyderabad	27,91,761	23,993	0.86	5.6
	Medak	14,67,944	38,776	2.64	9.00
	Nizamabad	13,13,268	27,952	2.13	6.5
	Chittoor	22,85,536	15,409	0.67	3.6

TABLE 3

**District-wise Distribution of Urdu speakers in Minority in
relation to the total District population and the total Urdu Speakers in the
States of Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh and Bihar
(Census 1971)**

State	District	Total District population	Total Urdu speakers in the District	% of Urdu speakers to the total population	% Urdu speakers to the total Kannada speakers in the State
1	2	3	4	5	6
ANDHRA PRADESH	Hyderabad	27,91,761	7,34,936	26.30	22.2
	Kurnool	19,82,090	2,94,950	14.88	8.9
	Guntur	28,44,488	2,63,344	9.26	7.9
	Cuddapah	15,77,257	3,06,450	13.09	6.2
	Anantpur	21,15,321	2,08,350	9.85	6.3
	Nizamabad	13,13,268	1,51,862	11.56	4.6
	Chittoor	22,85,536	1,71,016	7.48	5.1
	Mehboobnagar	19,32,082	1,68,710	8.73	5.1
KARNATAKA	Bangalore	33,65,515	3,48,861	10.37	13.32
	Gulbarga	17,39,220	2,99,427	17.22	11.36
	Dharwar	23,42,213	2,89,409	12.36	10.98
	Bijapur	19,85,591	2,17,352	10.95	8.24
	Belagam	24,23,342	1,90,312	7.85	7.22
MAHA- RASHTRA	Greater Bombay	59,70,675	6,47,976	10.85	17.70
	Parbhani	15,06,771	2,65,325	17.61	7.25
	Sholapur	22,53,840	1,96,841	8.73	5.38
	Osmanabad	18,96,687	1,87,346	9.88	5.12
	Aurangabad	19,71,006	1,81,333	9.20	4.95
	Jalgaon	21,23,121	1,75,015	8.24	4.78
	Akola	15,01,478	1,72,400	11.48	4.71

1	2	3	4	5	6
UTTAR PRADESH	Moradabad	24,28,971	7,49,170	30.84	8.00
	Meerut	33,66,953	5,44,936	16.18	5.8
	Basti	29,84,090	3,95,584	13.26	4.2
	Bijnor	14,90,185	4,82,292	32.36	5.2
	Bareilly	17,79,867	3,92,137	22.03	4.2
	Saharanpur	20,54,834	5,26,349	25.62	5.6
BIHAR	Purnea	39,41,863	11,67,417	29.62	23.3
	Darbhanga	52,33,904	5,84,190	11.16	11.6
	Muzaffarpur	48,40,681	4,96,275	10.25	9.9
	Gaya	44,57,473	3,30,375	7.41	6.6
	Monghyr	38,92,609	2,89,029	7.43	5.7
	Champaran	35,43,104	2,96,734	8.37	5.9

TABLE 4

**District-wise Distribution of Hindi speakers in Minority in relation
to the total District population and the total Hindi speakers in the
States of Maharashtra, West Bengal, Assam, Punjab, Karnataka and Gujarat
(Census 1971)**

State	District	Total District population	Total Hindi speakers in the District	% of Hindi speakers to the total population	% Hindi speakers to the total Hindi speakers in the State
1	2	3	4	5	6
MAHA - RASHTRA	Greater Bombay	59,70,575	3,96,959	10.00	23.6
	Nagpur	19,42,688	2,24,454	11.55	8.8
	Yeotmal	14,23,677	1,93,893	13.62	7.6
	Bhandra	15,85,580	1,90,249	12.00	7.5
	Aurangabad	19,71,006	1,34,692	6.83	5.3
	Akola	15,01,478	1,33,343	8.80	5.2
	Poona	31,78,029	1,16,296	3.66	4.6
	Amravathi	15,41,209	1,10,751	7.19	4.38
WEST BENGAL	Twentyfour Paragana	84,49,482	4,65,057	5.50	17.1
	Jalpaiguri	17,50,159	2,72,199	15.55	10.0
	Howrah	24,17,286	2,09,128	8.65	7.7
	Calcutta	31,48,746	7,31,853	23.24	26.9
	Burdwan	39,16,174	3,52,915	9.01	12.9
ASSAM	Cachar	17,13,318	1,93,226	11.27	24.2
	Lakhimpur	21,22,719	1,86,434	8.78	23.3
	Darrang	17,36,188	1,05,019	6.05	13.1
	Kamrup	28,54,183	77,998	2.73	9.7
	Goalpara	22,25,103	72,667	3.27	9.1

PUNJAB	Gurdaspur	12,29,249	4,45,447	36.24	16.4
	Ferozepur	19,05,833	3,61,660	18.98	13.3
	Jallundur	14,54,501	3,61,575	24.86	13.3
	Hoshiarpur	10,52,153	3,26,282	31.01	12.0
	Patiala	12,15,100	2,63,782	21.71	9.7
	Amritsar	19,35,500	2,62,187	14.28	9.6
KARNATAKA	Gulbarga	17,39,220	1,03,346	5.94	19.6
	Bijapur	19,85,591	63,185	3.18	11.9
	Bangalore	33,65,515	50,242	1.49	9.5
	Bellary	11,22,686	43,072	3.84	7.1
	Shimoga	13,01,485	37,921	2.91	7.1
	Raichur	14,15,740	27,031	1.91	5.1
GUJARAT	Ahmedabad	29,10,307	2,00,211	6.88	46.56
	Baroda	19,80,065	39,571	2.00	9.20
	Surat	17,86,924	29,342	1.64	6.83
	Kheda	24,51,387	28,315	1.16	6.59

TABLE 5

Education through Kannada Medium
(17th Report of the Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities)

State	Academic year	Primary				Secondary			
		No. of schools	No. of sections	Total pupils	Total Teachers	No. of Schools	No. of sections	Total pupils	Total teachers
Tamil Nadu	1972-73	45	3	6175	131	—	10	310	13
	1973-74	41	14	5267	131	—	17	371	31
Maharashtra	1972-73	229	1	30895	873	21	23	9665	356
	1973-74	217	1	33337	954	20	28	10866	413
Andhra Pradesh	1972-73	67	26	6162	158	11	13	1374	73
	1973-74	68	28	6736	163	11	25	1304	76
Kerala	1972-73	95	100	32147	1053	9	11	4779	206
	1973-74	93	109	32990	1083	10	10	5176	196

TABLE 6

Education through Urdu Medium
(17th Report of the Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities)

State	Academic year	Primary				Secondary			
		No. of schools	No. of sections	Total pupils	Total Teachers	No. of Schools	No. of sections	Total pupils	Total teachers
Maharashtra	1972-73	1776	103	335689	9329	165	123	77060	3040
	1973-74	1781	97	344873	10064	170	127	81485	3315
Andhra Pradesh	1972-73	1130	1738	170287	4909	83	762	35885	1537
	1973-74	1097	1566	188232	4997	102	986	36343	1715
Karnataka	1972-73	2624	...	316279	7494	32	44	10919	853
	1973-74	2624	...	322602	7494	33	52	12222	924
Bihar	1972-73	3587	2471	294528	6466	30	695	8305	502
	1973-74	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
Uttar Pradesh	1972-73	2088	646	25735	5417	5	...	2819	965
	1973-74	NA	NA	NA	NA	...	...	...	...

TABLE 7

Education through Hindi Medium
(17th Report of the Commissioner for Linguistic Minorities)

State	Academic year	Primary				Secondary			
		No. of schools	No. of sections	Total pupils	Total Teachers	No. of Schools	No. of sections	Total pupils	Total teachers
West Bengal	1972-73	445	276	72187	1842	99	136	48273	1514
	1973-74	689	95	118434	3357	193	46	61440	2990
Maharashtra	1972-73	503	19	126839	3999	93	126	80081	19675
	1973-74	508	20	130839	4046	94	140	85288	21758
Andhra Pradesh	1972-73	44	61	10202	258	26	52	7769	327
	1973-74	36	25	6847	195	28	287	9546	440
Karnataka	1972-73	17	...	3354	92	...	...	...	...
	1973-74	17	...	3412	92	...	...	...	...
Assam	1972-73	146	13	14477	262	69	18	10014	699
	1973-74	133	8	18445	306	83	11	13421	1030
Gujarat	1972-73	71	6	21414	567	25	13	6152	277
	1973-74	78	4	26565	654	26	11	7241	283
Punjab	1972-73	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA
	1972-74	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA	NA

TABLE 8

**Number of periodicals and their circulation in
Hindi, Urdu and Kannada in different States
(Press in India 1979. 23rd Report Part I)**

State	No. of periodi- cals	Kannada		No. of periodi- cals	Hindi		No. of periodi- cals	Urdu	
		Circu- lation in thou- sands	Ratio of circulation total lan- guage speakers		Circu- lation in thou- sands	Ratio of circula- tion to total lan- guage speakers		Circu- lation in thou- sands	Ratio of circula- tion to total language speakers
Tamil- nadu	7	NA	NA	10	NA	NA	9	NA	...
Maha- rashtra	7	NA	NA	106	NA	NA	137	890	35
Andhra Pradesh	1	NA	NA	230	230	.07	17	NA	NA
Karna- taka	...	...	...	38	123	.05	10	NA	NA
Kerala	2	NA	NA	...	...	...	3	...	...
Bihar	...	...	...	41	131	.03	...	...	...
Uttar Pradesh	...	...	...	200	200	.02	...	...	...
Assam	...	...	...	...	...	...	4	6	.01
Gujarat	...	...	...	...	...	...	5	NA	NA
West Bengal	...	...	...	42	...	...	109	380	.01
Punjab	...	...	...	...	...	...	81	164	.06

ASSESSMENT OF SILENT *versus* ORAL READING SPEED AND COMPREHENSION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN

Abstract of the Report of the Reading Project Completed in 1974

PRAMILA AHUJA
G. C. AHUJA

Introduction

Reading occupies an important place in the scheme of education. Reading proficiency is a key to the storehouse of knowledge. It is the most essential tool which helps achieving success in all the academic subjects. Reading involves skill and thinking — but considered in its broader sense, it affects the entire personality. A child who has acquired the ability to read has gained an access to the key of knowledge. Now-a-days when one largely depends on one's ability to interpret the printed page, reading becomes still more important.

Today the values of both oral and silent reading are recognized by educators and the necessity is recognized for an enriched reading programme that retains and further emphasizes all the values inherent in intelligent silent reading and in addition secures economically effectively the unique values that oral reading may contribute. Silent reading is the individual's means of obtaining thoughts; oral reading is the medium for transmitting these thoughts to others. Eye movements involved in oral and silent reading are dissimilar. Silent reading is characterized by few and short fixations, oral reading shows long pauses of the eyes and many regressive movements.

At present there is no specific information as to how well children read orally or silently. While silent and oral reading have many skills in common, success in one does not ensure equal success in another.

The present study is an attempt towards the assessment of silent *versus* oral reading speed and comprehension of school children.

THE REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Francis W. Parker was one of the first educators who made the distinction between oral and silent reading. He stressed the fact that 'expression helps thought, and thought

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is necessary for expression'. Investigations¹ by Huey, Judd, Mead, Schmidt, Pinter and Oberholtzer revealed the fact that both speed and comprehension were better in silent reading than in oral reading. Alberta Walter and Mary R. Parkman² in *A Manual to Accompany the Study Readers* have presented a comparison of the two reading processes, which is as follows :

Silent Reading	Oral Reading
1. A comparatively simple process – comprehending the thought from the printed pages.	A complex process – comprehending the thought and communicating it through the voice.
2. Eye movements Number per line – 4 to 10 words seen with one fixation – 0.93 to 2.53.	Eye movements Number per line – 6 to 11 words seen with one fixation – 0.86 to 1.02.
3. Pauses – shorter and fewer than in oral reading.	Pauses – frequent and long enough for the reader to seize upon and interpret the idea through the voice.
4. Rate – can reach 400 or 500 words a minute.	Rate – cannot go faster than the voice – about 150 words a minute.
5. Problem – an individual necessity.	Problem a social enterprise.

Perhaps the muscular activity involved in oral reading is a factor that causes oral reading to be a slower process than silent reading.

PLAN AND PROCEDURE

The Purpose — Objectives of the Study

The purpose of the present study was to examine the speed and comprehension of school children in silent and oral reading. Specifically, the objectives of this study were :

1. To find out the speed of silent reading and oral reading.
2. To find out the extent of relationship between silent reading speed and oral reading speed.

¹ Smith, Nila B. *American Reading Instruction*, International Reading Association, Newark, Delaware (Fourth Printing) 1970, p. 160.

² Walter, Alberta and Parkman, Mary R. *A Manual to Accompany the Study Readers*, Charles E. Merrill Company, New York. 1925. p 11.

3. To find out the comprehension in silent reading and oral reading.
4. To find out the extent of relationship between silent reading comprehension and oral reading comprehension.
5. To find out the extent of relationship between silent reading speed and silent reading comprehension.
6. To find out the extent of relationship between oral reading speed and oral reading comprehension.
7. To find out the silent reading index and oral reading index.
8. To find out the extent of relationship between silent reading index and oral reading index.

To achieve these objectives, it was considered necessary to make use of a pair of tests (one for silent reading and the other for oral reading). As no such standardized tools were readily available, it was decided to devise the same specifically for use in this study.

Description of the tools used

Two reading comprehension tests of comparable difficulty (one for silent reading and the other for oral reading) were constructed for use in the present study. Each test contained 568 words and 15 comprehension questions. The reading material contained in both these tests was of simple and interesting nature. For both these tests, three statistics (the item validity, the item difficulty and the test reliability) were computed (Ref. Appendix I) which confirmed the fact that the tests used as tools in the present study were quite suitable. Test 1 was used for oral reading and test 2 for silent reading. These have been given in Appendix 2 of the Report.

The Sample

100 pupils (50 boys and 50 girls) drawn from VII Standard falling in the age-group 12+ of two English Medium Schools of Mysore served as the sample for the present study.

Administration of the Tests - Procedure

The reading comprehension tests (for silent and oral reading) were administered on the pupils individually. To begin with, each pupil was asked to read Test 1 orally. The pupil was instructed to read fast but with understanding so as to be able to answer the

questions that followed. The time taken by the pupil to read Test 1 orally was noted down with the help of a stop-watch. After the pupil read the test, it was withdrawn and a set of questions based on the test was given. Thereafter, Test 2 meant for silent reading was administered. For this purpose, the pupil was instructed to indicate immediately when the reading of Test 2 was over. Time taken by the pupils to read Test 2 silently was recorded. After withdrawing the test, a set of questions was given to the pupil. For both the tests, the pupil was given ample time to answer the comprehension questions. This very process of administration of the tests was repeated for all the pupils. On an average it took about 30 minutes as testing time for each pupil.

After the administration of the two tests was over, the next step was to tabulate the data for calculating the speed scores, comprehension scores and reading indices.

Speed Scores

The speed scores in terms of words per minute (w.p.m.) read silently and orally were calculated separately for each pupil. This was done by dividing 568 (the total number of words contained in each test) by the amount of time taken.

Comprehension Scores

Each test contained 15 comprehension questions. These were scored by giving one-point credit for each correctly marked answer. The percentage comprehension scores were calculated separately for silent and oral reading.

Reading Indices

Although both speed of reading and comprehension are recognized as important aspects of reading ability, neither one is stressed in itself. It was, therefore, decided to compute the reading index, a measure which is a combination of both reading speed and comprehension. The reading index shows the reading efficiency of the child in a real sense of the word. The reading indices were computed by multiplying the speed (in words per minute) by the comprehension score (percentage of correct answers on tested material). The indices were calculated both for silent and oral reading.

The data thus obtained were analysed for results.

DATA ANALYSIS

1. Speed of Silent and Oral Reading

Table 4 presents the distribution of silent and oral reading speed scores for the entire sample of 100 pupils.

Table 4 : Distribution of Silent and Oral Reading Speed Scores (N=100)

Scores	Silent Reading Speed	Oral Reading Speed
340-359	1	
320-339	3	
300-319	0	
280-299	2	
260-279	2	
240-259	2	1
220-239	13	3
200-219	11	4
180-199	11	11
160-179	12	13
140-159	17	25
120-139	13	19
100-119	8	17
80-99	4	6
60-79	1	1
Total	100	100
Mean	178.90	147.30
SE		
M	5.68	3.59
SD	56.82	35.88
SE		
SD	4.03	2.55

From Table 4, it is observed that the silent reading speed of the sample has a mean of 178.90 + 5.68 words per minute with a standard deviation of 56.82+4.03.

The oral reading speed of the sample has a mean of 147.30+3.59 words per minute with a standard deviation of 35.88+2.55.

The extent of acceleration of silent reading speed over oral reading speed has been found to be 31.60 w.p.m., which is statistically significant.¹

¹ t-value =4.70. Significant at .01 level.

It is obvious that the pupils will read faster if they read silently. It is due to the fact that silent reading is characterized by short and few fixations, but the articulation required in oral reading necessarily slows down the process. The difference in the SDs of silent and oral reading 20.94, indicates that the oral reading scores are less scattered than the silent reading scores.

Co-efficient of Correlation Between Silent and Oral Reading Speed

The co-efficient of correlation has been reported in Table 5.

Table 5 : Correlation Between Silent and Oral Reading Speed

$$r = .716 \quad (N = 100)$$

The co-efficient of correlation .716 (significant at .01 level) given in Table 5 is a high correlation and hence a marked relationship. This may be due to the fact that silent and oral reading have many skills in common.

2. Silent and Oral Reading Comprehension

Table 6 presents the distribution of silent and oral reading comprehension scores.

Table 6 : Distribution of Silent and Oral Reading Comprehension Scores (N=100)

Scores	Silent Reading Comprehension	Oral Reading Comprehension
91-100	21	11
81- 90	14	21
71- 80	26	39
61- 70	12	11
51- 60	15	12
41- 50	4	1
31- 40	3	4
21- 30	2	0
11- 20	3	1
	47	

Scores		Silent Reading Comprehension	Oral Reading Comprehension
Total	...	100	100
Mean	...	71.70	73.80
SE			
M	...	1.99	1.52
SD	...	19.94	15.17
SE			
SD	...	1.41	1.08

Table 6 indicates that the silent reading comprehension of the sample has a mean of 71.70 + 1.99 with a standard deviation of 19.94 + 1.41.

The oral reading comprehension of the sample has a mean of 73.80 + 1.52 with a standard deviation of 15.17 + 1.08.

The extent of difference between the silent and oral reading comprehension has been found to be 2.10 which is not statistically significant.¹ It is observed that the pupils are at par in silent and oral reading comprehension.

Co-efficient of Correlation between Silent and Oral Reading Comprehension

The co-efficient of correlation between the silent and oral reading comprehension has been reported in Table 7.

Table 7 : Correlation Between Silent and Oral Reading Comprehension

$$r = .322 \quad (N = 100)$$

The co-efficient of correlation between the two measures as shown in Table 7 is .322 (significant at .01 level), which is a low correlation, a definite but small relationship.

3. Co-efficient of Correlation between Silent Reading speed and Comprehension

It was further considered necessary to study the relationship between silent reading speed and silent reading comprehension. The same has been reported in Table 8.

¹ t - value = 0.84. Not significant at any level

Table 8 : Correlation Between Silent Reading Speed and Comprehension

$$r = .398 \quad (N = 100)$$

The co-efficient of correlation between silent reading speed and comprehension shown in Table 8 is .398 (significant at .01 level), which is a low correlation, a definite but small relationship. It suggests that when pupils read with an exacting purpose, the relationship between reading speed and comprehension is always low. Similar results ($r = .30$) have been reported by Bloomers and Lindquist.⁸

4. Co-efficient of Correlation between Oral Reading Speed and Comprehension

The co-efficient of correlation between oral reading speed and oral reading comprehension has been reported in Table 9.

Table 9 : Correlation Between Oral Reading Speed and Comprehension

$$r = .254 \quad (N = 100)$$

The co-efficient of correlation between the two measures shown in Table 9 is .254 (significant at .01 level), which is a low correlation and hence a definite but small relationship. When pupils read with an exacting purpose, the relationship between reading speed and comprehension is likely to be low.

5. Silent and Oral Reading Indices

Table 10 presents the distribution of silent and oral reading indices for the entire sample of 100 pupils.

⁸ Bloomers, P. and Lindquist, E. F. "Rate of Comprehension in Reading: Its Measurement and Its Relation to Comprehension." In Farr, Roger. (Ed) *Measurement and Evaluation of Reading*, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc. New York. 1970. P. 284.

Table 10 : Distribution of Silent and Oral Reading Indices (N=100)

Indices	Silent Reading	Oral Reading
320-339	2	
300-319	1	
280-299	3	
260-279	0	
240-259	3	
220-239	2	1
200-219	4	2
180-199	8	3
160-179	6	4
140-159	10	12
120-139	12	16
100-119	16	21
80- 99	14	19
60- 79	8	15
40- 59	8	5
20- 39	3	1
Below 20	0	1
Total	100	100
Mean	135.10	110.90
SE		
M	6.75	3.99
SD	67.52	39.92
SE		
SD	4.79	2.89

From Table 10, it is observed that the silent reading index of sample has a mean of 135.10 ± 6.75 with a standard deviation of 67.52 ± 4.79 .

The oral reading index of the sample has a mean of 110.90 ± 3.99 with a standard deviation of 39.92 ± 2.89 .

The reading index comes out to be more in silent reading when compared with that of oral reading 'so much so as 24.20 units. This mean difference favouring silent reading index is statistically significant.¹

Co-efficient of Correlation between Silent and Oral Reading Indices

The co-efficient of correlation between silent reading indices and oral reading indices has been reported in Table 11.

Table 11 : Correlation Between Silent and Oral Reading Indices

$$r = .688 \quad (N = 100)$$

The co-efficient of correlation reported in Table 11 is .688 (significant at .01 level), which is a moderate correlation and hence a substantial relationship.

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Findings

The findings of the present study are reported below.

1. The silent reading speed of the sample has a mean of 178.90 words per minute with a standard deviation of 56.82. The minimum score received by the pupil is 68 whereas the maximum score is 355.
2. The oral reading speed of the sample has a mean of 147.30 words per minute with a standard deviation of 35.88. The minimum score received by the pupil is 76 and the maximum score is 256.
3. The co-efficient of correlation between silent reading speed and oral reading speed is .716, which represents a marked relationship between the two variables.
4. The silent reading comprehension of the sample has a mean of 71.70 with a standard deviation of 19.94.
5. The oral reading comprehension of the sample has a mean of 73.80 with a standard deviation of 15.17.

¹t - value = 3.09. Significant at .01 level.

6. The co-efficient of correlation between silent reading comprehension and oral reading comprehension is .322, which is a low correlation and indicates a definite but small relationship.
7. The co-efficient of correlation between silent reading speed and silent reading comprehension is .398, which is a low correlation and indicates a definite but small relationship.
8. The co-efficient of correlation between oral reading speed and oral reading comprehension is .254, which is a low correlation and indicates a definite but small relationship.
9. The silent reading index of the sample has a mean of 135.10 with a standard deviation of 67.52.
10. The oral reading index of the sample has a mean of 110.90 with a standard deviation of 39.92.
11. The co-efficient of correlation between silent reading indices and oral reading indices is .688, which is a moderate correlation and hence a substantial relationship.

Limitations of the Study

The limitations of the present study are as follows.

1. The study was confined only to two English Medium Schools of Mysore.
2. Only 100 pupils (50 boys and 50 girls) of VII Standard were studied.
3. Reading comprehension tests (one for silent reading and the other for oral reading) were specifically devised for use in this study.
4. The cyclostyled form of the tests was used.

Observations

During the course of administration of the tests, the following observations were recorded.

1. The students do not have much practice in reading.
2. They skip over many words while reading orally.
3. The students are in the habit of vocalizing while reading silently, which hampers their reading speed.

4. Finger pointing and head movements are very common in the students which not only create fatigue but also distaste for reading.
5. They regress very freely while reading orally.
6. The students have poor vocabulary and faulty pronunciation.

Implications

The implications of the study in the form of suggestions have been given below.

1. The language teachers should devote at least some time exclusively for teaching reading to the students. The teachers of various school subjects who are concerned primarily with the task of teaching specific subject-matter should also contribute to whatever extent they can.
2. Provision should be made for systematic and intensive drill in the basic reading skills that are needed for efficient reading.
3. Faulty reading habits such as vocalizing, word by word reading, lip reading, finger pointing, and monotonous plodding should be discouraged.
4. Sufficient reading materials of interesting nature should be provided which will help the pupils in developing taste for reading and in increasing speed and comprehension.
5. Pupils who have reading difficulties should be sorted out at an early stage and provision be made for their remedial teaching.
6. Opportunities should be provided for frequent and systematic measurement of achievement in reading.
7. Pupils should be encouraged to take active part in co-curricular activities which promote reading.

Suggestions for Further Research

Some of the areas of research suggested by the findings of the present study are given below.

1. Assessment of silent and oral reading rates and comprehension of school children for different standards and on larger groups may be attempted.
2. Assessment of reading speed and comprehension may be made with different types of reading materials.

3. Assessment of reading ability of school children with reading materials of graded difficulty in mother tongue and other tongue may be made.
4. A study of the factors affecting reading ability may be taken up.
5. Preparation of a wide variety of standardized tools for measuring reading ability may be undertaken.
6. A study of comparative value of oral and silent reading at different class levels may be undertaken.
7. Materials relating to reading including professional books for teachers and better textbooks for reading (both oral and silent) may be prepared.
8. A study of reading problems of school children in mother tongue and other tongue will prove to be of immense value to those associated with teaching of reading.

IMPLEMENTATION OF THE THREE-LANGUAGE FORMULA

Source: Document circulated at the All India Conference of Education Secretaries and Education Ministers in June 1984

The National Policy on Education as adopted by the Parliament in 1968, provided in respect of three language formula as under :—

“Three Language Formula :— At the Secondary stage, the State Governments should adopt, and vigorously implement, the three language formula which includes the study of a modern Indian language, preferably one of the southern languages, apart from Hindi and English in the Hindi-speaking States, and of Hindi alongwith the regional language and English in non-Hindi speaking States. Suitable courses in Hindi and/ or English should also be available in universities and colleges with a view to improving the proficiency of students in these languages up to the prescribed university standards.

2. The Government of India continues to be committed to the three language formula. Most of the States have, in principle, accepted the three language formula.

3. The implementation of this formula is basically the responsibility of the State Governments. The Ministry of Education and Culture has been operating the following schemes to facilitate the implementation of this formula.

(1) Financial assistance to non-Hindi speaking States for appointment of Hindi teachers in schools.

(2) Financial assistance for establishment of Hindi teachers training colleges in non-Hindi speaking States/Union Territories.

(3) The setting up of the Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore with five regional language centres at Mysore, Poona, Bhubaneswar, Patiala and Solan to assist primarily for training of school teachers for the teaching of a second language and for production of literature and materials on language teaching.

(4) Training of Hindi Teachers through the Kendriya Hindi Sansthan, Agra.

4. A statement showing implementation of the three language formula by the State Governments/Union Territories is enclosed.

5. It was resolved in the meeting of the Central Advisory Board of Education held on 6th and 7th June, 1983 that the State Governments should take effective steps to implement the three language formula as laid down in the National Policy on Education, 1968. Steps taken by the State Governments may be reviewed.

**Statement showing the pattern of languages and the position of
implementation of three language formula in the States and Union Territories of India**

**As per information received from
State Governments/Union Territory Administrations up to 31-5-1983**

Sl. No.	State/Union Territory	Languages taken up	Class from which and upto which the langu- ages are provided for teaching and learning	Remarks
1.	Andhra Pradesh	1. First language (Any one of the follow- ing groups may be offered.)	Mother tongue and Regional Language	
		a) One of the follow- ing :— Telugu, Hindi, Urdu, Kan- nada, Tamil, Oriya, Marathi, Gujarati or	From Class I	
		b) A composite course of any one of the languages mention- ed in (a) above with an allied classical language or	English from Class V	
		c) A composite course of :—		
		i) Any one of the Lan- guages in (a) above which is the mother tongue of the pupil and	Hindi from Class VI	

ii) One other from the regional languages of the State (Telugu, Urdu, Tamil, Kannada, Oriya and Marathi are recognised as regional languages of the State) or

d) Urdu or Kannada or Tamil or Oriya or Marathi or Gujarati with the study of Hindi in Devanagari script as a minor part of the course.

II. Second Language

a) For those who do not study Hindi under any of the group (a), (b), (c) and (d) under first language—Hindi.

(b) For those who do not study Telugu under first language except those in (b) Telugu.

(c) For those non-permanent residents of the State, e. g., children of Central Government employees liable for transfer to any place in India — Any regional language of the State (other than the pupil's first language) or (any modern Indian language) (other than the first language). Drawing or any other Fine Arts such as Music.

III. Third Language

English, which shall be commenced in Class VI except in the case of English medium schools where instruction in English may be started earlier.

1	2	3	4	5
2.	Assam	i) Mother tongue or regional language ii) English iii) Hindi (for Assamese) or Assamese (for non-Assamese)	Three language formula is being implemented only in Class V to VII.	
3.	Bihar	1. MOTHER LANGUAGES—Hindi, Urdu, Bengali, Oriya, Maithili, Nepali and English. 2. English 3. National Language/Second Indian Language : Hindi (whose mother tongue is other than Hindi) or Sanskrit or Bengali or Oriya or Urdu.	Class I-X Class VI-X Class III-X	
4.	Gujarat	At secondary education level, from Standard VIII to IX the three language formula is in vogue. These three languages are : (1) Gujarati or any other mother tongue, (2) Hindi and (3) English. Hindi and English languages are taught as lower level languages. If Hindi is mother tongue then regional language is taught as lower level language. At public examination held at the end of Standard X, two languages are compulsory and student can offer the third language as optional subject. Thus the three language formula is in vogue at the public examination level too.	At the Higher Secondary level, Hindi is not a compulsory language subject but students are given option to select any one language from the group of language subjects.	

1	2	3	4	5
5.	Haryana	1. Hindi 2. English 3. Punjabi/Urdu/ Sanskrit/Telugu.	From 1st primay From 6th Class/Secondary From 7th Class/Secondary	
6.	Himachal Pradesh	1. Hindi 2. English 3. Urdu	I to XI VI to XI IX to X	
7.	Jammu & Kashmir	1. Urdu or Hindi 2. English 3. Urdu/in case of Hindi medium schools or Hindi in case of Urdu medium schools.	I to XII VI to XII VII to XIII	
		4. Punjabi, Dogri, Kashmiri, Ladakhi, Arabic, Sanskrit, Persian (as additional optional subject).	IX to X	
		5. Hindi, Urdu, Dogri, Kashmiri, Punjabi, Ladakhi, Arabic, Persian, Sanskrit (one language as elective subject)	XI to XII	
8.	Karnataka	1. The following language pattern at the secondary school level will be adopted by the State Government of Karnataka (from the academic year 1987-88). A. First Language Kannada shall be the sole first language (to carry 125 marks). B. Two other languages from the following :— Urdu, Tamil, Telugu, Marathi, English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Malayalam and Kannada (to carry 100 marks each).		

Note :

15 grace marks shall be given for a period of ten years (a) in the first language examination, to students whose mother tongue is not Kannada ; and (b) in Hindi examination, to students who study Hindi and whose mother tongue is not Hindi.

2. Students coming from outside the State and joining VIII or IX or X Standard in the State of Karnataka and who did not study Kannada earlier may be permitted to take English or Hindi as first language.

3. The teaching of Kannada from I standard in non-Kannada schools will commence from the academic year 1982-83 itself and the language pattern for high schools prescribed above will come into force from the academic year 1987-88.

9. Kerala

1. Regional language Malayalam (Kannada or Tamil for minority linguistic groups).

(There is provision for teaching Gujarati and English for Gujarati speaking and Anglo-Indian groups from Standard I onwards).

I to X and
the University

There is provision for teaching Arabic and Urdu from Standards I to X and Sanskrit from Standards V to X for pupils who want to learn the language.

1	2	3	4	5
		2. English	IV to X and the University.	There is also provision to teach Russian and Bengali in selected schools during out of school hours.
		3. Hindi	V to X and the University	
10. Madhya Pradesh		i) Mother tongue ii) Hindi (for non-Hindi speaking.) and Sanskrit (for Hindi speaking). iii) English	Three language formula in vogue at the Middle school level, i.e., from Class VI to VIII.	
11. Maharashtra	In Maharashtra State, there are in all 7 media of instruction through which the education is imparted from standard V to Standard X in schools. In almost all the cases of different media of instruction, three language formula is being followed according to the requirements of various communities in the State. This pattern of study of languages has been implemented since the academic year 1972-73 onwards. However, the existing pattern was slightly modified so far as language formula is concerned from the academic year 1982-83. According to this pattern it is decided to make Sanskrit as optional language from Standard VIII onwards. Any			

1	2	3	4	5
		school desiring to opt for Sanskrit shall have the option of dropping Hindi for Sanskrit. However, Hindi will be compulsory upto Standard VII.		
12. Manipur	i) Manipuri or recognised Tribal dialect. ii) English iii) Hindi		From Class I From Class III From Class VI	
13. Meghalaya	Hindi Hindi Hindi English		Primary (optional, it is compulsory only in some schools in which the medium of instruction is Hindi). Middle – as above High – as above High – compulsory in non-Hindi schools.	
14. Nagaland	i) Mother Tongue ii) English iii) Hindi		From Class I onwards From Class I onwards From Class V	
15. Orissa	i) Oriya ii) English iii) Hindi		Three language formula is being implemented in Grade VI to X (English is introduced from Grade IV)	
16. Punjab	i) Punjabi ii) English iii) English		From Class I From Class IV From Class VI	
17. Rajasthan	i) Hindi ii) English iii) Sanskrit or Urdu or Sindhi or Gujarati or Punjabi or Malayalam or Tamil or Bengali		Three language formula is being implemented in Middle and Secondary stage)	

1	2	3	4	5
18. Sikkim	i) English ii) Hindi iii) Nepali/Tibetan/ Lepcha/Limboo	Class I to XII Class I to VIII	Either (ii) or (iii) in Class IV and X.	
19. Tamil Nadu	Tamil or the mother tongue of the pupil where it is diffe- rent from Tamil English or any other non- Indian Language	I to X III to X	Two language formula is being followed in Tamil Nadu in accorda- nce with the reso- lution passed by the State Legisla- tive Assembly in 1968.	
20. Tripura	In Tribal area - regional language - Kok Barok In non-tribal area - Regional language - Bengali 1st Language - Regional Langu- age - Bengali; 2nd language - English; 3rd language Hindi/ Sanskrit/Arabic/Pali/Persian etc. 1st Language - Regional Langu- age - Bengali; 2nd Language - English	I to II III to VIII IX to X		
21. Uttar Pradesh	1. Hindi (The Hindi syllabus also contains a small portion of Sanskrit which is of a very elementary nature) 2. One of the Indian languages mentioned in the 8th sche- dule of the Constitution or Sindhi or Nepali 3. One of the Modern European Languages	VI to VIII		

1	2	3	4	5
22.	West Bengal	1. First language – one Assamese, Bengali, English, Gujarati, Hindi, Lushi, Malayalam, Marathi, Modern Tibetan, Nepali, Oriya, Punjabi, Gurumukhi, Santhali, Sadari, Telugu, Tamil, Urdu. 2. Second language – one English if any language other than English is offered as First Language - or Bengali if English is offered as First Language. 3. Third Language – one a) A classical language. b) A modern Foreign language other than English. c) A modern Indian Language other than the First Language, as may be approved by the Board.	Class VI to Class X	
23.	Arunachal Pradesh	i) English as first language ii) Hindi as second language iii) Assamese as third language (Modern Indian Language)	I to X I to X VI to VIII	
24.	Andaman & Nicobar Islands	1st Language (mother tongue) Hindi/Tamil/Telugu/Urdu/Malayalam/Bengali/Punjabi 2nd Language English 3rd Language	Class I to Class XII except Punjabi and Malayalam and Tamil are taught upto Class VIII Class I to Class X (Teaching of English in Classes I and II is optional) Urdu/Malayalam and Sanskrit	

1	2	3	4	5
25.	Chandigarh	One can opt for Hindi/Punjabi as 1st and 2nd language.		Some of the schools provide for teaching of English, Hindi and Tamil Language.
		1st Language	I to Matric	
		2nd Language	III to Matric	
		English	III to Matric	
26.	Dadra and Nagar Haveli	1. Regional Language Gujarati and Marathi	I to XII	
		2. Hindi	V to XII	
		3. English	V to VII	
27.	Delhi	a) At the Middle Stage (Classes VI to VIII)		
		i) Hind		
		ii) English		
		iii) Sanskrit/a composite course of Hindi/any regional language/any other language prescribed by Central Board of Secondary Education		
		b) At the Secondary Stage (Class IX and X)		
		i) All students would study three languages upto Class VIII		
		ii) Third language to be studied upto Class VIII and examined internally. If the student does not qualify in the third language, he should be re-examined in Class IX by the school concerned in the same syllabus and text-books as are prescribed for Class VIII.		

Those who are still unable to clear it by the end of Class IX, are given another opportunity to clear the same in Class X. The student has to qualify/pass in the first and second languages under the normal promotion rules.

Thus, pass in all the three languages is a pre-requirement for appearing at the secondary examination of Central Board of Secondary Education, Delhi.

- iii) Two languages must be studied in Classes IX and X and student would be examined externally by the Board in these languages. These two languages should include either Hindi or English, as one of them, as prescribed by the Central Board of Secondary Education, Delhi and should be any two out of a list of following 26 languages drawn up by the Board.

Hindi, English, Assamese, Bengali, Gujarati, Kannada, Marathi, Malayalam, Manipuri, Oriya, Punjabi, Sindhi, Tamil, Telugu, Urdu, Sanskrit, French, German, Russian, Arabic, Persian, Nepali, Portuguese, Lepcha, Dimpu and Tibetan.

1	2	3	4	5
28. Goa, Daman & Diu	Goa	Primary Stage Marathi Konkani Urdu Kannada English Daman & Diu Gujarati English/Hindi Middle & Secondary Stage V to VII First Language Second Language Third Language First Language – English Second Language – Hindi Third Language - Marathi or Konkani	From Class I to IV From Class I to IV From Class I to IV From Class I to IV From Class I to IV From Class I to IV Class III & IV 2nd Language English/Marathi/Gujarati Hindi Marathi /English /Gujarati/ Konkani This pattern is also followed at the secondary stage, VIII to X. For classes VIII to X Hindi as entire subject or a Hindi and Sanskrit composite course is being followed.	1st Language and 2nd Language
29. Lakshadweep	Same as for Kerala		Same as for Kerala	
30. Mizoram	Mizo English Hindi		From Primary School Class I to College Class B. A. From Primary School Class III to College Class B. A. From Middle to High School Class X. Class V	

1	2	3	4	5
31.	Pondicherry	i) Pondicherry and Karaikal regions		The schools in these regions are affiliated to the Secondary and Higher Secondary Boards of Education Tamil Nadu/University of Tamil Nadu and therefore the Education pattern of Tamil Nadu State is followed. The Schools in Mahe are affiliated to Kerala Board/Calicut University and the pattern of Education is the same as in Kerala. The schools in Yanam are affiliated to Andhra Pradesh Board/University and they are following the pattern as prescribed in Andhra Pradesh. In both Kerala and Andhra Pradesh three language formula is adopted, so in Mahe and Yanam regions also.
		Tamil or the mother tongue of the pupil where it is different from Tamil	I to X	
		English or any other non-Indian Language	III to X	
		ii) Mahe and Yanam regions		
		As per language patterns in Kerala and Andhra Pradesh respectively.		

**A REPORT ON THE MEETING OF THE NORTH-EASTERN TRIBAL
LITERATURE COMMITTEE HELD AT THE CIIL**

(5th Sept. to 9th Sept. 1983)

P. P. GIRIDHAR

The aim of the meeting was three-fold : to discuss the problems relating to the development of tribal languages and their use in education in terms partly of a reference to the work the Institute has done on tribal languages, to hear the members speak on the past and projected, linguistic and literary activities of their committees and additionally to orient the participants generally about language and the ways it ramifies into other domains of human activity.

The meeting took place between the 5th and 9th of Sept. '83. Twenty three persons representing as many as nineteen tribes from Nagaland and Manipur took part in the deliberations. The tribes represented were Angami, Sangtam, Konyak, Yimchunger, Sema, Chokri, Kuki, Chakhesang, Zemi, Liangmai, Khiamngan and Phom from Nagaland and Chiru, Purum, Maram, Aimol, Moyon, Tarao and Mizo from Manipur.

An informal closing session was held with the Director of CIIL in the chair where the following four points were taken note of : a. Work on statistically minor languages like Kom, Koirang, Aimol, Purum, Chothe, Chiru etc., should be taken up. b. Workshops in their areas on languages of more backward tribes. c. Copies of the CIIL Publications should be sent to the literature committees. d. Translation of grammars published by CIIL into the concerned tribal languages and workshops to guide native speakers to write grammars of their languages in their own languages.

A COURSE ON COMPUTER AND LINGUISTICS

(5th Dec 1983 to 4th Jan 1984)

**Joint Programme of Institute of Applied Language Sciences and
Central Institute of Indian Languages, Mysore.**

(Funded by the Department of Science and Technology)

J. SAKUNTALA SHARMA

The course was conducted at Aloka, in which there were 20 participants from Trivandrum (7), Mysore (6), Madras (2), Delhi (2), Calcutta (1), Dharwad (1) and Kurukshetra (1).

The resource persons gave lectures on the following topics.

- 1) a. Introduction to Computers
b. Data Structures & Algorithms
c. Approaches to Information Retrieval
d. Data Base Management
—Dr. I. K. Ravichandra Rao
- 2) FORTRAN-A Computer language
—Dr. A. G. Hariharan
- 3) a. Advanced Programming
b. Structured Programming
c. String Manipulation
d. Linguistic Data Processing
—Dr. S. Namperumal
- 4) Syntactic structures and the Computer-aided-Translation
—Dr. P. C. Ganeshsundaram
- 5) Capabilities of the computer & Prospective use in Linguistics
—Shri B. R. Vasanth
(Special lecture)
- 6) Computer for Research on 'Speech and Hearing'
—Dr. N. Rathna
(Special lecture)
- 7) a. Language and Communication
b. Artificial Language
c. Linguistics and its applications
—Dr. D. P. Pattanayak

- 8) a. The nature of grammar
b. Universal properties of language
—Dr. E. Annamalai
- 9) a. Characteristics of human language
b. Predictability : phonology, morphology and syntax
c. General Introduction to the theory of Translation
d. Psychology of Language use
e. Science and language
f. Schools of linguistic
—Dr. M. S. Tirumalai
- 10) a. Language as code
b. Design of language
c. Linguistic aspects of machine translation
d. Mechanical processing of language data
—Dr. V. R. P. Nair
- 11) Linguistics and scripts input and output
—Shri L. S. Wakankar
- 12) Probability Theory and Probabilistic approach to Linguistics
—Smt. Sakuntala Sharma
- 13) General Linguistics
—Dr. O. N. Koul

Besides the teaching done by the Resource Persons, Shri D. V. Urs, Prof. C. D. Narasimhaiah and Shri Rajarao also spoke to the participants on different occasions. Apart from class lectures, there was practical work with the computer of the Mysore University Computer Centre.

There was also a visit to the Computer Centre of the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, for the demonstration of the computer components. A Microprocessing Computer system was brought from Bangalore to Aloka for demonstration. Participants were exposed to the working of the system and a number of computer programmes were executed as a practical demonstration. A Bibliography on 'Computers and Linguistics' was prepared by the CIIL and was made available for the benefit of the participants.

Besides the above activities group discussions were organised to identify different areas of interest in the field of Computational Linguistics, for further research etc., Participants were divided into four groups and various computer programmes were worked out as team work. These programmes were run on the computer at the Mysore University and their debuggings were discussed.

On the last day of the course the participants and the resource persons passed the following resolutions :

(1) An ad hoc Committee consisting of the following members be formed to find ways to promote applications of computers in linguistics and language related research to Computer Science :—

- | | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| i) Dr. D. P. Pattanayak | (Chairman) |
| ii) Dr. P. C. Ganesh Sundaram | (Vice-Chirman) IIS, Bangalore |
| iii) Dr. E. Annamalai | CIIL, Mysore |
| iv) Dr. E. V. Namboodiri | University of Kerala, Trivandrum |
| v) Dr. A. G. Hariharan | University of Mysore, Mysore |
| vi) Dr. P. K. Saxena | Ministry of Defence, GOI |
| vii) Dr. R. C. Sharma | University of Kurukshetra, Kurukshetra |
| viii) Shri Abdul Huq | Madras Christian College, Madras |
| ix) Smt. Sakuntala Sharma | CIIL, Mysore (Convener) |

(2) A follow-up course on Computational Linguistics be conducted.

(3) The ad hoc Committee take necessary action to conduct the course and identify other programmes of research and training in computational linguistics.

**REPORT ON THE NATIONAL WORKSHOP-CUM-SEMINAR ON
CONSTRUCTION AND STANDARDIZATION OF READING COMPREHENSION
TESTS BASED ON THE CLOZE PROCEDURE IN INDIAN LANGUAGES**

(December 26 to 31, 1983)

G. C. AHUJA

A National Workshop-cum-Seminar on Construction and Standardization of Reading Comprehension Tests based on the Cloze Procedure in Indian Languages was held at the Institute from December 26-31, 1983. The focus of the workshop was on the following aspects :

1. To develop a strategy in the form of a Format that could be applied to all Indian languages for devising Cloze Tests.
2. To discuss latest developments in the area of Language Testing.
3. To study the comparative advantages of the objective-type test items and the cloze items.

14 papers were presented and 21 participants including CIIL staff members representing seven Indian languages participated in the Seminar. The papers varied in scope from Language Learning to Language Testing, to Comprehension and Standardization of Cloze Tests, to Reading for Comprehension, to use of Reading Comprehension Tests for Improved teaching for Creative appreciation, to overall Language Efficiency, Test of Literacy for Adults in the Adult Education Programme etc. Research studies carried out by the scholars in different languages such as Marathi, Bengali, Kannada and English were also discussed at length.

Besides the paper reading sessions, there were working group sessions for the following languages :

Marathi, Gujarati, Hindi, Bengali, Tamil, Kannada and Telugu.

A format was devised where it was agreed that the length of the passage be 500 words and every seventh word be deleted from the passage. The tests be standardized on pupils of Standard VII. The work of testing be completed in one school period of 30 minutes. The selected passages be tried out during the period of the Seminar and reports presented. The remaining work of standardizing the test be carried by the participants at their respective Institutions. CIIL will provide every possible support for the same.

The working groups made selections of passages in their respective languages and tried them out on mother tongue speakers. They studied the results and presented before other working groups for discussion.

The individuals in the working groups will continue working on the standardization of tests and thus complete the assignments in due course. It was decided that, as a follow up measure, the CIIL will organize another workshop in 1984 where the present participants will present the findings of their try-outs in their respective places of work, on the basis of which an attempt will be made to frame a national format for the construction and standardization of reading comprehension tests based on Cloze procedure.

REPORT ON THE NATIONAL SEMINAR-CUM-WORKSHOP ON CODE-CHOICE AND CODE-SWITCHING IN A MULTILINGUAL SITUATION

H. R. DUA

The National Seminar-cum-Workshop on Code-Choice and Code-Switching in a Multilingual Situation was held at the Institute from January 16 to January 20, 1984. The focus of the seminar was on the following themes :

- (1) The elicitation techniques for collecting language data involving code-mixing and code-switching ;
- (2) The study of linguistic and extra-linguistic constraints in code-mixing and code-switching with respect to both cognate and non-cognate languages and their use in different situations ;
- (3) The quantitative and qualitative techniques of analysing the instances of code-mixing and code-switching ;
- (4) The social meaning and functions of code-mixing for communication and social interaction ;
- (5) The relevance of code-switching for language convergence and change on the one hand and for multi-lingual competence and performance on the other.

Twelve papers were presented and 20 participants including CIIL staff members participated in the seminar. The papers had wide scope from the review of research on code-mixing and code-switching to the critical examination of theoretical concepts and construction of a theoretical model suitable to the multilingual situation on the basis of empirical studies.

In the empirical studies reported in the papers data on code-mixing and code-switching involved Konkani-Kannada, Telugu-English, Naga-Pidgin-English, Hindi-Bengali, Tamil-English, Punjabi-Hindi-English and switching between Kannada dialects and Malayalam dialects. Thus the data discussed in the papers were adequately representative of the multilingual situation in India.

Besides the paper reading session the participants worked on the transcription and analysis of code-mixing and code-switching data recorded by them. For this purpose the participants were divided into two groups. The first group transcribed two passages involving code-switching and code-mixing of Tamil, English and Kannada in one passage and of English and Kannada in another. Each instance of code-mixing and code-switching was discussed with regard to social meaning, communication and social interaction. Alteration in codes was seen to be related to topic, role-relationship and communicative function. The second group collected the instances of code-mixing of Konkani and Kannada and Kannada and English and analysed them with regard to the frequency of

code-mixed elements from the view point of the constraints operating on the process of mixing and the motivating reasons that seemed to trigger mixing. Both the groups presented the reports of their analysis in a general session which were followed by discussion of both theoretical and practical issues in the description, analysis and explanation of code-switching and code-mixing.

A general session was devoted to the discussion of recurrent and common issues and themes that arose from the presentation and discussion of papers. This was also considered useful for evolving a model of studying code-mixing and code-switching and focusing attention on topics for future research. As expected the general discussion proved to be very useful and the following issues were considered to be significant for future research.

(i) It was felt that the multilingual situation in India is different from what obtains in most western countries. It was therefore considered that the notions and theoretical models developed in the western countries may not be applicable in our situation. Attempts should be made to develop our own constructs and theoretical models to account for the complex code-mixing and code-switching data

(ii) It is necessary to distinguish between borrowing, code-mixing, convergence, code-switching, interference and such inter-related concepts.

(iii) It was felt that there may be a continuum from code-mixing to code-switching and the boundary line may be hazy between the two. It is, therefore, necessary to evolve formal criteria and unit of analysis in terms of which both can be clearly distinguished. It was discussed whether sentence, speech event, expression or other such units could be developed to distinguish between them.

(iv) It was decided that code-mixing and code-switching data must be collected from different language pairs and from different social situations in various domains of language use. This would be necessary to study typological similarities and differences in code-mixing and switching across languages. It would also be necessary to relate the macro-and micro-levels of analysis.

(v) It was realized that identity negotiations play a critical role in code-switching behaviour in a multilingual context and this should be considered essential in constructing any model for studying code-switching.

(vi) It was found in the analysis of data in the group work and was discussed at length that the notion of role-relationship should be extended by incorporating such notions as status, distance, formality, politeness to account for code-switching. It was thought that extending and enriching the notions of role-relationship would be more useful than extending the notion of situation.

(vii) It was considered that code-switching and code-mixing could be different in conversation and narrative. Furthermore, in the context of conversation code-switching seemed to follow certain underlying regulations and principles of conversational analysis. It was therefore suggested that we should examine the relevance of the theory of conversational analysis for studying code-switching behaviour.

(viii) It was discussed that the nature and amount of code-mixing and code-switching would depend on linguistic, social and individual factors. Among the individual factors the competence of individuals was considered crucial in differentiating between different levels of mixing and switching.

In the light of the issues raised above it was suggested that we may formulate a set of questions which researchers should take into account for conducting any research on code-mixing and code-switching. Furthermore, we should also formulate some research projects on major issues and extend our work on these two topics as they were considered fundamental in explaining multilingual competence and performance in a complex multilingual situation of India.

REPORT ON THE SEMINAR ON LEXICAL RELATIONS

(February 13 to 15, 1984)

R. A. SINGH

A three day Seminar on Lexical Relations was held at the Institute from February 13 to February 15, 1984.

The Seminar was attended by 15 delegates from different universities and Institutes and the members of the faculty of the Institute.

In the fifteen papers presented in six sessions, different aspects of lexical relations both semantic and syntactic were discussed. The problems related to the presentation of their information in dictionaries were also discussed at length. The treatment of lexical relations in both the Indian tradition and in the modern linguistics was discussed in detail.

A PLEA FOR A LANGUAGE RIGHTS DECLARATION

SOURCE : *ALSED Newsletter No. 30, 1984*

Recognizing that the acquisition, learning and uses of one language (or more) is a crucial factor in the cognitive linguistic development and in the sociocultural, educational and political self-assertion and self-actualization of individuals.

Conscious of the need to arouse and foster awareness, both nationally and internationally, that respect to a person's language (acquisition, learning) rights can and should be both preached and practiced.

A plea is made for the drafting and adopting of a "Declaration of the Individual's Language Rights" which might prove useful in the struggle against linguistic prejudice, discrimination, rejection and other forms of language-based or language-related injustice and oppression which unfortunately manifest themselves on world-wide basis in such contexts as the home, the school, and the place of work or of play. Special emphasis is placed on the fact that it is not enough merely to depend on or refer to the "Declaration of Human Rights" when the challenging goal is that of not only sensitizing but of changing attitudes and actions towards individuals as human users of languages and of varieties thereof. What is urgently needed for universal dissemination and systematic use is a statement, produced by interdisciplinary humanists engaged in language-centered scientific research or education, that may reflect a serious commitment to the quest for a world characterized by an increasing assurance of a person's full enjoyment of his or her expressive-communicative rights, privileges and responsibilities during lifelong language-using experiences.

A plea is also made for UNESCO, together with other international organizations deeply interested in language education and in the preservation and assurance of linguistic dignity and equity, to sponsor the preparation, distribution and activation of such a Declaration.

**TOTAL RESEARCH ENROLMENT (M.Phil./Ph.D.)
SUBJECT-WISE DURING 1980-81**

SOURCE : *University Grants Commission*

Modern Indian Languages

Assamese	3
Bengali	74
Gujarati	70
Hindi	1906
Manipuri	9
Kannada	137
Malayalam	52
Marathi	177
Oriya	58
Punjabi	57
Rajasthani	4
Sindhi	3
Tamil	325
Telugu	239
Urdu	280

Classical Languages

Sanskrit	997
Sanskrit & Prakrit/ Sanskrit & Pali	14
Sanskrit & Pali	11
Arabic	48
Persian	40

Foreign Languages

Modern European Languages	20
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Chinese	1
Tibetan	3
Chinese & Japanese	33
Nepalese	1
German	6
Russian	9
Spanish	5

Linguistics

Linguistics	203
Comparative Languages	15
Comparative Literature	7

MATERIAL PRODUCTION WORK IN REGIONAL LANGUAGES

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3. Urdu (non-cog.)	Shri Nazir Hassan

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6. Marathi	Dr. V. Chitnis
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9. Sindhi	Dr. Varyani
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11. Telugu	Dr. K. Viswanatham
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10. Telugu	Dr. K. Viswanatham
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12. Urdu (non-cog.)	Sri Mohammed Niaz

4. State School Readers

- | | |
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| 1. Assamese I | Dr. P. N. Dutta Baruah |
| 2.a. Bengali I | Dr. A. K. Basu |
| 2.b. Bengali II | Sri B. C. Choudhuri |
| 3. Gujarati II | Dr. Usha Nair |
| 4. Kashmiri | Submitted |
| 5. Malayalam II | Sri V. S. Nair |
| 6. Marathi II | Dr. V. Chitnis |
| 7. Oriya | Submitted |
| 8. Sindhi | " |
| 9.a. Urdu (NCI) | Dr. Siddiqui |
| b. (NC II) | Mr. Mustafa |
| 10.a. Urdu (Cog.) I | Sri A. R. Fatihi |
| b. " II | Sri J. Mohammed |

5. An Introduction to Script : Reading and Writing

- | | |
|-------------|-----------------|
| 1. Bengali | Sri K. K. Rahri |
| 2. Kashmiri | Dr. R. K. Bhat |
| 3. Telugu | Sri V. Sarathy |
| 4. Urdu | Sri Zaidi |

6. Recall Vocabularies

- | | |
|--------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Assamese | Dr. P. N. Dutta Baruah |
| 2. Bengali | Mrs. Malaya Gangopadhyaya |
| 3. Malayalam | Mrs. B. Syamala Kumari |
| 4. Tamil | Dr. N. Nadaraja Pillai |

7. Pictorial Glossary

- | | |
|--------------|------------------------|
| 1. Kannada | Dr. B. Mallikarjun |
| 2. Kashmiri | Sri Raina |
| 3. Malayalam | Smt. B. Syamala Kumari |
| 4. Oriya | Ms. Mohanti |
| 5. Tamil | Dr. Nadaraja Pillai |
| 6. Telugu | Sri P. Ramanarasimham |
| 7. Urdu | A. R. Fatihi |

8. Hindi-Regional Language Common Vocabulary

- | | |
|----------------------------------|---------------|
| 1. Hindi-Punjabi-
Common Voc. | Dr. M. Bhatia |
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9. Verb Dictionary

- | | |
|------------|-------------------------|
| 1. Bengali | Mr. Sumita Bhattacharya |
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